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TRAVELS

IN THE

OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA,

UNDERTAKEN BY ORDER OF

THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE,

DURING THE FIRST SIX YEARS OF THE REPUBLIC,

BY

G. A. OLIVIER,

MEMBER OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE, OF THE SOCIETY OF AGRICULTURE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE, &c. &c.

Illustrated by Engravings,

CONSISTING OF

HUMAN FIGURES, ANIMALS, PLANTS, MAPS, PLANS, &c. &c.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED

A MAP OF GREECE, OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,

AND

OF A PART OF ASIA MINOR.

VOLUMES I. AND II.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

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* This plate requiring particular care in the execution, is not yet finiſhed: it will be delivered with thoſe which refer to the *TRAVELS IN EGYPT.*

☞ *The Binder is directed to arrange the Plates in an Atlas, according to their numerical order.*

ERRATA.

VOL. I.

Page 11 Line 2, *for* manner *read* mode
22 — 13, *for* royal *read* imperial
51 — 2, *for* faw *read* found
83 — 2, *for* Nicodemia *read* Nicomedia
157 — 1, *for* exifts *read* exift
166 — 18, *for* fome remedies *read* of fome remedies
197. — 11, *for* people *read* nation

Note. In page 87 of this volume, we promifed to confult the Author refpecting the fifh which he calls *pageau.* This we have done; and, as we conjectured, it proves to be the *fparus erythrinus* of LINNÆUS, which, in Englifh, is known by the name of the *filvery-eyed, red fparus.* In French, it is more generally termed *pagel; pageau* being a provincial appellation for the fparus of this fpecies.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE taſte for reading travels is at the preſent day become ſo general, that a work of this nature, if executed with a certain degree of intelligence, can ſcarcely fail to meet with a favourable reception: it conveys inſtruction while it affords amuſement; it brings us acquainted with men and cuſtoms that were either imperfectly or not at all known to us; and the contraſt that neceſſarily exiſts between the manners of a diſtant country and thoſe of our own, diffuſes, in ſuch narratives, an attractive ſingularity, which, at once, combines the intereſt of fable and the merit of hiſtory.

But not unfrequently the pleaſure experienced in the peruſal of theſe narratives is interrupted by long nautical details, which can be uſeful to ſeamen alone; and, by minute, though ſcientific deſcriptions, which are entertaining only to naturaliſts: beſides, in the greater part of the accounts of travels which are publiſhed, one either finds accidents common to almoſt all travellers, or adventures the improbability of which deſtroys the intereſt that they inſpire.

The "*TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA,*" the Firſt Part of which we now offer to the Public, are exempt from theſe defects. The ſtyle of M. OLIVIER is ſimple, clear, and conciſe:

his narrative bears the ſtamp of truth; indeed, in his *Introduction*, he declares that he has adopted the idea of the celebrated Volney, who has ſaid that "*travels ought to be written in the manner of hiſtory, "and not in that of romance**." Accordingly, our Author dwells not on trifles, though he leaves nothing important to be related by travellers who may hereafter viſit the ſame countries; and, without bewildering himſelf in the wide field of conjecture, he preſents to his readers none but objects worthy of exciting the intereſt of the trader, the politician, the philoſopher, and the man of ſcience.

The picture which he exhibits of Constantinople is both boldly drawn and ſtrongly coloured. In fact, it required a maſterly pencil to paint a city no leſs remarkable from the natural beauties of its ſituation, the diverſified ſcenery of its environs, the commodiouſneſs of its harbour, and the mild temperature of its climate, than from the blind policy and ſupineneſs of its government, the turbulent and ferocious diſpoſition of its inhabitants, and the malignant influence of the plague, that deſtructive ſcourge by which it is ſo frequently ravaged.

His account of Troas cannot but be particularly intereſting to the claſſical ſcholar; while his deſcription of the principal iſlands of the Greek Archipelago, and of the once-famous Iſle of Crete, muſt be equally ſatisfactory to him and to the general reader. Laſtly, the

* *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*

various

various engravings with which this work is enriched, will gratify curiosity, at the same time that they illustrate the text.

M. OLIVIER being already so well known as a naturalist of the first class by the different works which he has published *, it would be superfluous here to point out his merits in that line; we shall therefore content ourselves with observing that he appears to us to have completely verified the opinion entertained of his *general* talents by those who selected him as a person qualified for the important mission on which he was employed. Of the truth of the assertion, this First Part of his "*TRAVELS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND* "*PERSIA*," not only affords sufficient proof; but justifies every confidence that the Second and Third Parts, with which he has also promised to favour us as soon as they are respectively completed, will enable us to accomplish the task on which we have entered, in such a manner as to leave no disappointment in the mind of our readers.

LONDON, August the 7th, 1801.

* 1. *Entomologie ou Histoire naturelle des Insectes, avec leurs caractères génériques et spécifiques, leur description, leur synonyme, et leur figure enluminée.* In 4 Vols. large 4to, with upwards of sixty plates to each.

2 *Dictionnaire des Insectes, faisant partie de l'Encyclopédie méthodique.* 4 Vols. 4to. This work is not yet finished: it will consist of seven or eight volumes.

3. *Mémoires d'Histoire naturelle et d'Agriculture,* which it would here be too tedious to enumerate.

☞ To ſpare the reader the trouble of reference, the Tranſlator here inſerts

A TABLE,

SHEWING THE CORRESPONDING DAYS OF

THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH CALENDARS.

1 *Vendémiaire.*		3 *Frimaire.*		5 *Pluviôſe.*		7 *Germinal.*		9 *Prairial.*		11 *Thermidor.*	
1	Sept. 22	1	Nov. 21	1	Jan. 20	1	March 21	1	May 20	1	July 19
2	23	2	22	2	21	2	21	2	21	2	20
3	24	3	23	3	22	3	23	3	22	3	21
4	25	4	24	4	23	4	24	4	23	4	22
5	26	5	25	5	24	5	25	5	24	5	23
6	27	6	26	6	25	6	26	6	25	6	24
7	28	7	27	7	26	7	27	7	26	7	25
8	29	8	28	8	27	8	28	8	27	8	26
9	30	9	29	9	28	9	29	9	28	9	27
10	Oct. 1	10	30	10	29	10	30	10	29	10	28
11	2	11	Dec. 1	11	30	11	31	11	30	11	29
12	3	12	2	12	31	12	April 1	12	31	12	30
13	4	13	3	13	Feb. 1	13	2	13	June 1	13	31
14	5	14	4	14	2	14	3	14	2	14	Aug. 1
15	6	15	5	15	3	15	4	15	3	15	2
16	7	16	6	16	4	16	5	16	4	16	3
17	8	17	7	17	5	17	6	17	5	17	4
18	9	18	8	18	6	18	7	18	6	18	5
19	10	19	9	19	7	19	8	19	7	19	9
20	11	20	10	20	8	20	9	20	8	20	7
21	12	21	11	21	9	21	10	21	9	21	8
22	13	22	12	22	10	22	11	22	10	22	9
23	14	23	13	23	11	23	12	23	11	23	10
24	15	24	14	24	12	24	13	24	12	24	11
25	16	25	15	25	13	25	14	25	13	25	12
26	17	26	16	26	14	26	15	26	14	26	13
27	18	27	17	27	15	27	16	27	15	27	14
28	19	28	18	28	16	28	17	28	16	28	15
29	20	29	19	29	17	29	18	29	17	29	16
30	21	30	20	30	18	30	19	30	18	30	17

2 *Brumaire.*		4 *Nivôſe.*		6 *Ventôſe.*		8 *Floréal.*		10 *Meſſidor.*		12 *Fructidor.*	
1	Oct. 22	1	Dec. 21	1	Feb. 19	1	April 20	1	June 19	1	Aug. 18
2	23	2	22	2	20	2	21	2	20	2	19
3	24	3	23	3	21	3	22	3	21	3	20
4	25	4	24	4	22	4	23	4	22	4	21
5	26	5	25	5	23	5	24	5	23	5	22
6	27	6	26	6	24	6	25	6	24	6	23
7	28	7	27	7	25	7	26	7	25	7	24
8	29	8	28	8	26	8	27	8	26	8	25
9	30	9	29	9	27	9	28	9	27	9	26
10	31	10	30	10	28	10	29	10	28	10	27
11	Nov. 1	11	31	11	March 1	11	30	11	29	11	28
12	2	12	Jan. 1	12	2	12	May 1	12	30	12	29
13	3	13	2	13	3	13	2	13	July 1	13	30
14	4	14	3	14	4	14	3	14	2	14	31
15	5	15	4	15	5	15	4	15	3	15	Sept. 1
16	6	16	5	16	6	16	5	16	4	16	2
17	7	17	6	17	7	17	6	17	5	17	3
18	8	18	7	18	8	18	7	18	6	18	4
19	9	19	8	19	9	19	8	19	7	19	5
20	10	20	9	20	10	20	9	20	8	20	9
21	11	21	10	21	11	21	10	21	9	21	7
22	12	22	11	22	12	22	11	22	10	22	8
23	13	23	12	23	13	23	12	23	11	23	9
24	14	24	13	24	14	24	13	24	12	24	10
25	15	25	14	25	15	25	14	25	13	25	11
26	16	26	15	26	16	26	15	26	14	26	12
27	17	27	16	27	17	27	16	27	15	27	13
28	18	28	17	28	18	28	17	28	16	28	14
29	19	29	18	29	19	29	18	29	17	29	15
30	20	30	19	30	20	30	19	30	18	30	16

1ſt Complementary Day,	Sept.	17
2	- - -	18
3	- - -	19
4	- - -	20
5	- - -	21

INTRODUCTION.

A CELEBRATED author has ſaid that travels ought to be written in the manner of hiſtory, and not in that of romance *: he has proved to us in a clear, preciſe, and energetic ſtyle, that ſubjects the moſt ſerious, and diſcuſſions the moſt important, might intereſt every claſs of readers, and ſtill pleaſe more than the flowery ſtyle, the romantic epiſodes, and the exaggerated or falſe deſcriptions of moſt travellers.

Penetrated, like him, with this truth, I have, in the following narrative, avoided all ſingular anecdotes, all humourous ſtories, more fit to amuſe than inſtruct. I was not willing to employ thoſe over-brilliant colours which may be captivating for a moment, but the effect of which is tranſient. The ſight of a deſerted field, covered with myrtles, or that of a garden confuſedly planted with date and orange trees, could never inflame my imagination; and I have frequently ſurveyed, without aſtoniſhment, truncated capitals and ſcattered fragments of columns.

Not but I have been ſtruck by the beauty of ſituations; not but the aſpect of DELOS and of ATHENS, of ALEXANDRIA and of BABYLON,

* VOLNEY, *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*

has

has drawn from me ſighs. I never contemplated the BOSPHORUS, the PROPONTIS, and the HELLESPONT without being moved, without excuſing CONSTANTINE, and without ſaying to myſelf, that Nature would have done every thing for theſe countries, had ſhe not at the ſame time placed there the plague and a fanatic people, enemies to the arts and ſciences.

CONSTANTINOPLE is intereſting under ſo many conſiderations, that I thought it my duty not to quit that capital of the Ottoman Empire without giving a rapid ſketch of the manners of a ſingular people, who appear to have been at firſt no more than a great religious and military ſociety; without making known ſome of their cuſtoms; without caſting an eye on their government; and without pointing out that deſpotiſm, ſo terrible towards tributary ſubjects, preſerves, in regard to the Turks, moderate forms from which it would be dangerous to deviate. If the ſultan and his miniſters are inveſted with great power, the people are ever ready to riſe if they abuſe it.

TROAS recalled to my mind the fame of HOMER, and that war, true or fabulous, in which all the gods of OLYMPUS took a part. I trod with reſpect on the aſhes of the Greek and Trojan heroes. I ſought with eagerneſs the poſition of that famous city which for ten years ſuſtained the efforts of all the Greeks united. I followed with pleaſure the courſe of the SIMOÏS and SCAMANDER; but I lamented to ſee ſo few inhabitants, and ſo little culture on a ſoil which might be covered with luxuriant harveſts.

The Iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO appeared to me dry, parched, and mountainous, although productive, and ſituated in a happy climate. The Greeks who inhabit them, remote from the tyrants who oppreſs their country, have preſerved their gaiety, their activity, and their love of independence: thoſe of SCIO, protected by their privileges, ſhew themſelves the moſt active, the moſt induſtrious, and the moſt honeſt of all.

The Iſland of CRETE, ſo wretched, ſo poor at this day, is intereſting from its productions, from its advantageous poſition, from the remembrance of its ancient inhabitants, and from the Sphachiots who, on the top of their mountains, brave the arrogance of the Turks, and mock all their efforts.

EGYPT gave me the idea of an extreme fecundity, by means of a continued labour, and a wiſe and intelligent diſtribution of the waters of the NILE. EGYPT, ſituated between ASIA and AFRICA, between the ſeas of EUROPE and thoſe of INDIA, appeared to one of the greateſt men of antiquity, and to him, among us, who ſhews himſelf ſtill greater, worthy to be the central point of commerce of all nations. The river which gives life to this burning region, as regular in its increaſe, as the courſe of the ſtars and the movement of the univerſe, is well calculated to aſtoniſh even thoſe who know how to obſerve the progreſs of Nature, and who are familiarized to her phenomena.

Following the example of all travellers, we did not quit EGYPT without paying to the pyramids our tribute of admiration, without deſcending into thoſe vaſt catacombs which the hand of man has not feared to profane.

SYRIA, extremely diverſified in its productions, in its climate, and its ſoil; SYRIA, burning on the ſea-ſhore, temperate on the declivity of the mountains, cool on their ſummit, is beyond thoſe mountains no more than a ſteril, uninhabited country. The harbours of TYRE and of SIDON muſt recall to our mind the activity and induſtry of the nations which made them the emporium of an extenſive commerce; and ALEXANDRETTA would, perhaps, have anſwered the views of the conqueror by whom it was founded, had not the moſt unwholeſome air in the world been a conſtant obſtacle to it. Why muſt that intereſting region be oppreſſed by the Turks, partly governed by the moſt wicked man on earth *, and be, beſides, expoſed to thoſe dreadful ſcourges, earthquakes. We beheld the deplorable effects of that which was felt at LATAKIA during our ſtay in PERSIA.

If the upper part of MESOPOTAMIA is extremely fertile and temperate, the other is arid and burning. The banks of the EUPHRATES and of the TIGRIS, formerly ſo peopled, are almoſt entirely deſert, or are no longer at this day frequented but by thoſe tribes of Arab ſhepherds, whoſe manners intereſt us, and whoſe patriarchal cuſtoms and

* DGEZZAR-pacha.

laws

laws merit for ſome moments all the attention of the philoſopher. We ſhall not confound them with thoſe wandering hordes, not very numerous, inceſſantly in a ſtate of war, and ever ready to carry off flocks and plunder travellers.

BABYLONIA, whoſe ſoil is level, whoſe lands are deep, muſt have been a granary of abundance, when inhabited by a civilized, induſtrious, and agricultural people: it is not ſurpriſing that aſtronomy ſhould have taken birth in this country where the eternal clearneſs of a very pure ſky was inceſſantly inviting man to contemplate the ſtars and to follow their movements. At preſent the exceſſive heat of the ſun, increaſed by the abandonment and nakedneſs of almoſt all the lands, obliges man, in ſummer, to paſs the day in ſubterraneous caves, and the night in the fields or on the roof of the houſes. A wind which occaſions *aſphyxy*, and which we ſhall diſtinguiſh from the burning wind of AFRICA, is ſometimes felt in theſe countries, while clouds of locuſts frequently ravage the crops; and yet the ſtupid and reſigned Muſſulman never makes the ſmalleſt effort to guard againſt them.

In croſſing the mountains occupied by the Curds, I ſhall have occaſion to make known that warlike, paſtoral, and agricultural people, who ſo greatly reſemble the Medes their anceſtors. To me they appeared the ſame, whether I obſerved them in countries, ſeemingly ſubject to the Ottoman dominion, or ſaw them expoſed to the troubles and agitations which deſolate their neighbours.

For upwards of ſixty years a ſucceſſion of ambitious men have uninterruptedly devaſtated PERSIA in order to govern it. The cities the moſt flouriſhing under the reign of the Sophis, preſent every where nothing but ruins: three-fourths of the inhabitants have periſhed, or fled to the more tranquil and fertile regions of INDOSTAN. A ſtay of ſeveral months at the court, for the accompliſhment of a miſſion of the higheſt importance, furniſhed me with an opportunity of obſerving the great, of ſtudying the common people, and of collecting intereſting materials for the hiſtory of the inteſtine wars which have deſolated that empire ſince the death of NADIR SHAH.

From KERMANCHA to CASBIN, from TEREHAN to ISPAHAN, and from that city to AMADAN, PERSIA offered to me only an elevated country, thickly covered with high mountains deſtitute of wood, and interſected by vaſt plains, the greater part uncultivated. All this ſpace is cold in winter, but extremely hot in ſummer: it is, in general, very dry, and far from fertile. Productions are there obtained only by means of water, and it is by dint of labour alone that the inhabitants have ſucceeded in procuring ſprings ſufficiently copious for all domeſtic wants and for the irrigation of the lands.

On our return, a terrible war, unexampled in the hiſtory of nations, permitted us not to embark in SYRIA; and, notwithſtanding the ardent wiſh of reviſiting our country, notwithſtanding the infirmities of BRUGUIÈRE my colleague, and his well-founded averſion to travelling on

 horſeback,

horſeback, we were under the neceſſity of returning by land to CONSTANTINOPLE. We repaired to CYPRUS in the moſt dangerous ſeaſon of the year. We croſſed that iſland, the wonders of which the Greeks have juſtly extolled, and of which the Turks have made a place of infection and mortality. We quitted it as quickly as poſſible, and landed in CARAMANIA.

ASIA MINOR unites the productions of the coldeſt countries to thoſe of the moſt temperate. Hot on the borders and in the environs of the ſea, cold in the interior, elevated and adorned with wooded mountains, extenſive plains, fertile and well watered, ASIA MINOR is, perhaps, the country on earth the moſt beautiful, the moſt diverſified, and the moſt capable of ſupporting a great population. No country has coaſts more winding, and harbours more numerous, more ſafe, and more ſpacious.

On our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we requeſted a paſſport from the agent of the European power which covered the ſea with its ſhips: it was refuſed to us. This refuſal procured us the advantage of ſeeing ATTICA, the Iſthmus of CORINTH, the Gulf of LEPANTO, and the Iſlands of ITHACA, CEPHALONIA, and CORFU; but it was, perhaps, the cauſe of the death of my colleague. At ANCONA, BRUGUIÈRE ſunk under a diſorder occaſioned by the fatigues of a long journey, and the ſudden grief of having loſt a brother in the very country where we had juſt landed.

BRU-

Bruguière will long be mourned by his friends: he will inceſſantly be regretted by him who had ſuch frequent occaſion to appreciate the qualities of his heart, to admire the reſources of his head, and the depth of his knowledge; by him who would have ſtood ſo much in need of his aſſiſtance for the publication of the intereſting articles of natural hiſtory reſulting from theſe travels. No one had gone deeper than Bruguière into the claſs ſo difficult, ſo numerous, and ſo diverſified of worms, molluſca, and conchylia. He had applied himſelf betimes to the ſtudy of botany, and he was no ſtranger to the other parts of natural hiſtory. It is much to be lamented that an aſtoniſhing memory and the greateſt facility of expreſſing himſelf had made him neglect to note down his obſervations, and had even, at all times, rendered him very idle with reſpect to writing.

Although deprived of my coadjutor for the particular publication of the articles of natural hiſtory inedited or little known, I ſhall not the leſs unremittingly employ myſelf about them as ſoon as the hiſtorical part ſhall be in a ſtate of greater forwardneſs, and a general peace ſhall again promote, among us, a briſker ſale of works of literature.

The taſte of Bruguière, his ſickly ſtate, and his decided predilection for a retired and quiet life, not having permitted him, in the courſe of theſe travels, to apply himſelf to the ſame kind of ſtudy that I did, and to tranſport himſelf to all the places where obſervations

were

were to be made, and facts to be collected, I was obliged to undertake alone that part of the travels which relates to the manners, the cuſtoms, and the laws of the nations that we viſited. In order to render it more intereſting, I neglected not to caſt my eye towards our political and commercial relations. Geography, both ancient and modern, geoponics, and general phyſics, muſt neceſſarily at the ſame time have fixed my attention; and if I have not imparted to my labours all the intereſt of which they were ſuſceptible, it is becauſe the powers of man, as is well known, always fall far ſhort of his wiſhes.

I muſt here expreſs my gratitude to Citizens RUFIN, DANTAN, and FRANQUINI, whom I for a long time conſulted at CONSTANTINOPLE, and who were ever ready to reply to my queſtions relative to the cuſtoms and laws of the country. The laſt two even carried their complaiſance ſo far as to procure me the means of interrogating the beſt-informed Turks of the capital, and to ſerve as interpreters between them and me, whenever I wanted them. I am alſo indebted to ſome merchants and commiſſaries of commercial relations, whom I ſhall conſider it my duty to name, for information reſpecting the trade and productions of the LEVANT; laſtly, I am indebted to Mr. JOHN HE'RATHIUS, an Armenian phyſician and prieſt, born at ISPAHAN, for ſome details relative to the hiſtory of the inteſtine wars of PERSIA.

ESTIMATE

Of the MONIES, *WEIGHTS, and* MEASURES *of which mention is made in this work.*

THE *Turkiſh purſe* is worth 500 piaſtres, nearly 1000 livres or *circa* 42l. ſterling.

The *piaſtre* is divided into 40 parats which may be eſtimated at 2 livres or 1s. 8d. ſterling.

The *parat* is divided into three aſpres: it is equivalent to 5 centimes.

The *Turkiſh piaſtre* was formerly worth about 3 livres or 2s. 6d. ſterling; but ſince the ſucceſſive adulteration of the coin under the laſt ſultans, the piaſtre is worth little more than 1 livre 50 centimes. We have, however, valued it at 2 livres in imitation of the French merchants.

The *kilo* is a meaſure of capacity which is employed for grain only. Four kilos and a half make nearly the load of MARSEILLES. A kilo of wheat weighs from eighteen to twenty-two okes, according to the quality of this wheat.

The *oke* is a little more than three pounds two ounces MARSEILLES weight, and a little leſs that forty ounces and a half PARIS weight, or one thouſand two hundred and thirty-nine grams.

The *cantaar* is forty-four okes.

The *peek* is a meaſure of length. Four are made uſe of at CONSTANTINOPLE: the ſmalleſt, or that employed for ſilk ſtuffs, ſcarcely reaches two feet (65 centimetres).

That for cloths of cotton and wool does not reach two feet one inch (68 centimetres).

That of the arſenal nearly reaches twenty-ſix inches (70 centimetres and a half).

The peek of maſonry, or the great peek, is two feet four inches three lines, or 76 centimetres and a half *.

* The *Paris* foot is equal to 12.789 Engliſh inches.—*Tranſlator.*

TRAVELS

TO

CONSTANTINOPLE,

TO THE ISLANDS

OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,

AND TO

CRETE.

CHAPTER I.

Departure from Paris.—*Stay at* Toulon, *and at* Marſeilles.—*Departure from this latter city with a convoy bound to the* Levant.—*Behaviour of the officers of the ſhip.—Arrival at* Conſtantinople.

AT the end of October 1792, the executive proviſional council *, penetrated with the advantages which were likely to reſult from Travels into the OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, and PERSIA, reſpecting commerce, agriculture, natural hiſtory, general phyſics, geography, the medical art, and even our political relations with TURKEY; perſuaded that thoſe intereſting countries had not been conſidered under their true point of view, or had been ſo but

* The Members of this council were Citizens MONGE, GARAT, ROLAND, LEBRUN, CLAVIÈRE, and PACHE.

 partially.

partially, and that there ſtill remained much information for us to acquire reſpecting them, fixed their choice, for the accompliſhment of this object, on citizen BRUGUIÈRE and myſelf; gave us various inſtructions, as well verbal as in writing, and urged us to ſet out as expeditiouſly as we poſſibly could, in order to avail ourſelves of the *BELETTE* ſloop of war, fitted out at TOULON, and ready for ſailing.

We haſtened to make our preparations, to purchaſe ſome inſtruments of phyſics and natural hiſtory, fit for our obſervations and reſearches, and to provide ourſelves with a few books, both for our amuſement and inſtruction. We left PARIS on the 7th of November, at eight o'clock in the evening, after having ſpent the day with a few friends, from whom we have received in our abſence, and during the ſtorms of the revolution, the moſt ſincere proofs of attachment. On my return, I have had the ſatisfaction to learn that, through a thouſand dangers, ſtill more from their firmneſs and courage than from their prudence, they had happily got ſafe to port, and that the Republic might ſtill reckon them among her beſt citizens.

Having arrived at AVIGNON, Citizen BRUGUIÈRE took the road of MONTPELLIER, in order to embrace his father, his wife, and his children, and ſettle ſome family affairs; I took that of the department of the VAR, in order to embrace my parents at the ARCS, and leave, at SAINT TROPEZ, my wife in the arms of hers. We repaired much about the ſame time to TOULON, whence we hoped to ſail the firſt fine weather; but for reaſons which it is unneceſſary to ſet forth here, the ſloop waited in the road a long time for ſailing orders, and, after two or three months of expectation, ſhe was ordered to be put out of commiſſion.

Surpriſed at ſo long a delay, and ſorry to loſe our time, or not to employ it in a uſeful manner, notwithſtanding the hopes which were given us from day to day,

day, that we ſhould ſhortly ſail, we wrote to the Miniſter for foreign affairs, in order to beg him to haſten our departure, or to recall us, if the government no longer conceived our travels uſeful to the ſervice of the Republic. The Miniſter anſwered us that he had juſt given orders to Citizen GUIS, correſpondent for foreign affairs at MARSEILLES, to look out for a neutral veſſel whoſe commander might be willing to take us on board, as well as a ſhip-builder, two lapidaries, and other different citizens whom the government was ſending to CONSTANTINOPLE, conformably to the requeſts which had been made to it by the reis-effendi and the captain-pacha. We immediately repaired to MARSEILLES, and, till we ſet ſail, we employed ourſelves in viſiting the manufactories, in procuring information reſpecting the countries over which we were going to travel, and particularly concerning the trade which this town carried on with the LEVANT.

The war had not yet interrupted our commercial connexions with TURKEY. The MEDITERRANEAN was ſtill free; but, from one moment to the other, the Engliſh and the Spaniards, with whom we were already at war, might make their appearance there with forces ſuperior to thoſe which we had to oppoſe to them. It was our intereſt to haſten the hour of our departure. Citizen GUIS neglected nothing to find us a neutral veſſel; but as his meaſures were uſeleſs, we had recourſe to a French Captain of a foreign-built ſhip, bound to CONSTANTINOPLE, and which was to make part of the convoy that was getting ready at MARSEILLES for the different ſea-ports of the LEVANT.

Till then we had flattered ourſelves with making this voyage with Citizen SEMONVILLE, appointed for ſome time paſt Ambaſſador of the Republic to the Ottoman PORTE; but an order of the Miniſter recalled him to PARIS when every thing was ready for his departure, and we were waiting only for a fair wind for ſailing.

We left MARSEILLES on the 22d of April 1793, to the number of about twenty-nine ſail, convoyed by the *SIBYLLE* frigate, commanded by Citizen RONDEAU. The weather was fine, the wind faint, and the ſea tolerably ſmooth. The next morning we entered the road of TOULON, where we remained till the 29th of April, in order to wait for ſome ſtraggling veſſels.

On the 25th, we had the ſatisfaction to ſee a numerous convoy arrive from SMYRNA, SALONICA, and the principal ſea-ports of the LEVANT, eſcorted by the *MODESTE*, a frigate commanded by Captain VENEL. An account had already reached TOULON of the intereſting particulars of his engagement with the fleet of the famous captain of a privateer LAMBRO, of whom we ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak elſewhere.

For two days paſt the wind had blown with violence from the north-weſt, when we got under way, under convoy of the *DUQUESNE* of 74 guns, commanded by Captain VENCE, the *SIBYLLE* frigate of 40, the *SÉRIEUSE* frigate, and the *SENSIBLE* and *ROSSIGNOL* ſloops of war. The wind held for a few days in the ſame quarter, ſo that we ſoon got ſight of the weſt coaſt of SARDINIA, and ſhortly after of that of AFRICA. The ſea was ſo high, that almoſt all the paſſengers were confined to their beds. I was very ill till we got off MALTA, and indiſpoſed from time to time by ſea-ſickneſs during the whole paſſage.

Scarcely had we ſailed a week from TOULON, when we diſcovered, on the one ſide, the ſouth coaſt of SICILY, and, on the other, GOZZO and MALTA. After having paſſed through this channel, the weather became finer, the ſea was leſs rough, and the wind lulled, but it continued to blow from the north-weſt quarter. We ſaw ſome birds of paſſage, ſuch as quails, turtles, come and reſt themſelves on the ſhip's rigging. On the twelfth day, we perceived the

Iſland

Iſland of SAPIENZA and the mountains of the MOREA, and, before night, we made Cape MATAPAN; on the thirteenth, we found ourſelves between CERIGO and the Iſland of CRETE. There it was that the *DUQUESNE* left us in order to return to TOULON, and that Captain RONDEAU took the command of the convoy. The next day, we perceived at a very great diſtance the mountains of the Iſland of CRETE, diſtinguiſhed by ſeamen, by the name of the *WHITE MOUNTAINS*.

A part of the convoy bound to EGYPT and SYRIA, ſeparated from us under the protection of the *SÉRIEUSE*, and took their route to the eaſtward, while we directed ours to the northward. We had been at ſea no more than fifteen days, when we found ourſelves, at ſun-ſet, near the entrance of the port of MILO. The wind was to the north: for ſome time, we thought that we were going to anchor in the harbour of that iſland; but we diſcovered our miſtake by the ſignal which was made to ply to windward, till Captain RONDEAU had received, on board his ſhip, a pilot from the iſland.

The French government maintained at MILO and at ARGENTIERA, ſome old ſeamen to ſerve as pilots to ſhips of war which might arrive in theſe difficult parts. The captains were expreſsly forbidden to neglect a precaution on which the ſafety of the ſhip might depend, in a ſea ſtrewn with ſhoals, ſtormy in winter, and ſo narrow as to oblige a navigator ſometimes to gain a port or to ſhelter himſelf from a gale of wind, in a cove or behind ſome iſland. It is neceſſary, in this caſe, that long experience ſhould have pointed out to him the paſſages which he may attempt, the dangers which he ought to avoid, and that he ſhould know, by the lead, all the places where he may caſt anchor without expoſing himſelf to deſtruction.

On

On the ſixteenth day, the wind having ſhifted to the ſouth, we found ourſelves off the Iſland of SERPHO: we had aſtern of us the ſhoal called the FALCONERA, and the Iſland of SIPHANTO bore from us ſouth-eaſt. In the evening, we paſſed between the Iſlands of ZEA and THERMIA; on the ſeventeenth, we ſteered for Cape DORO. We ſoon left aſtern ANDROS and TINO, which lie ſo near to each other, that they appeared to us to be confounded; on the eighteenth day, we paſſed IPSERA, and made MITYLENE. The wind continued to blow lightly from the ſouth quarter, the weather was very fine; in the morning, the ſhips bound to SMYRNA, under convoy of the *SIBYLLE*, had ſhaped their courſe to the eaſtward; thoſe for SALONICA, under charge of the *SENSIBLE*, had taken their route to the weſt-north-weſt: we continued, to the number of three, ours for CONSTANTINOPLE, under convoy of the *ROSSIGNOL*.

Our veſſel was ſo bad a ſailer, that till then we had been conſtantly one of the ſternmoſt of the convoy, and the ſloops came frequently to take us in tow. Our officers, the moſt rude and moſt ignorant of all the ſeamen of the ſouth of FRANCE, in ſuch caſes, vented a torrent of abuſe ſo low and ſo diſguſting, that we were obliged to ſhut ourſelves up in our cabins, that we might not hear it: beſides, both the captain and the chief mate, and eſpecially the ſupercargo, behaved in the moſt unbecoming manner to all the paſſengers that the government was ſending to the LEVANT, abuſing ſome, threatening others, putting all to the ſhorteſt allowance, though proviſions were in ſufficient plenty on board, and the ſum agreed for our paſſage and our meſſing was above the common price.

On the nineteenth day, we paſſed MITYLENE: we diſcovered the coaſt of TROAS and TENEDOS; and in the evening, the cloudy weather making us apprehend ſome ſudden ſquall, it was agreed, between the captains, to lie to; in order that they might not enter the channel of the DARDANELLES during

the night; but when it was ſo dark that our ſhip could not be perceived, our captain ordered the blinds of the great cabin-windows to be ſhut, and made ſail to the northward. Citizen BRUN, ſhip-builder, as well as the ſuperintendants of the workmen whom he was carrying with him, perceiving the manœuvre contrary to what had been ordered by the captain of the ſloop of war, and agreed on between the captains of the ſhips, wiſhed to make repreſentations. According to cuſtom, they received abuſe and threats; the diſpute became ſo ſerious, that all the paſſengers preſented themſelves on deck. For a long time it had been feared that men who ſhewed ſo much repugnance to be towed, wiſhed to ſuffer themſelves to be taken by ſome enemy's ſhip, or to run their veſſel aground: the opportunity had not been favourable till then, but it became ſo on entering the channel. This fear, which I was far from ſharing, and which I think was never well founded, naturally aroſe from the conduct of the three officers, and might eaſily take birth in the mind of perſons exaſperated by abuſive and even inſulting language, and from the uncomfortable and ſuffering condition in which we all were. What idea could we have of thoſe men, who made ſerve for eighteen perſons what could barely be ſufficient only for ten, and who, after having partaken of our ſlender repaſt, made in a hurry, and on deck, ſat down to another meal privately in their cabin morning and evening; who availed themſelves alone of the greater part of the proviſions which they ought to have ſhared with all, and, among others, with the wife of the ſhip-builder, pregnant and ill, and with children who ſuffered much from ſea-ſickneſs?

In order to put an end to the diſpute, I repreſented that we had no right to concern ourſelves in the management of the ſhip, but had that of having an eye to our own ſafety, by obſerving and drawing up an account in writing of what might happen on board ſince the captain had diſobeyed the orders of the commanding-officer of the convoy. This obſervation had the effect which I had expected from it; the officers grew mild; they wiſhed to perſuade

ſuade us that they were ſuch good ſeamen and ſo well acquainted with the coaſt as to enter without danger the channel during the night; that, however, ſince we were afraid, they would lie to and wait for day, as had been agreed. Almoſt all the paſſengers were quiet; but the ſhipwrights, more miſtruſtful than the others, becauſe being ſeamen, they were better acquainted with the danger, alternately kept watch till daylight.

On the twentieth day of our departure, the 18th of May, we found ourſelves, on riſing, between TENEDOS and the coaſt of TROAS; and, about ſeven o'clock in the morning, we entered the channel with a rather freſh breeze at eaſt-ſouth-eaſt. The ſloop of war lay to, and did not ſhape her courſe for SMYRNA till ſhe was certain that we were out of all danger from privateers. Early in the day we paſſed GALLIPOLI, and in the evening we were becalmed in the ſea of MARMORA.

On the twenty-firſt day, the weather was very fine, and the heat began to be felt; the wind was to the ſouthward, but it was ſo faint, that we could make no progreſs on account of the contrary current. We remained the whole day to the north-weſt of the Iſland of MARMORA; but, during the night, the wind having blown with ſomewhat more ſtrength, on the twenty-ſecond day, in the morning, we enjoyed the ſight of CONSTANTINOPLE, and, about ten o'clock, we entered the harbour.

CHAPTER II.

Beauty of the ſite of Conſtantinople.—*Stay in that city.*—*Detention at* Trawnik, *of the envoy of the Republic.*—*Conduct of the* Porte.—*Arrival of a Ruſſian embaſſy extraordinary.*

It is difficult to expreſs the various ſenſations which a traveller experiences at the ſight of this great city and of its inhabitants: its elevated poſition, the mixture of trees, houſes, and minarets * which it preſents; the entrance of the Bosphorus, the harbour and ſuburbs of Galata, Pera, and St. Dimitri; Scutari and the verdant hills which lie behind; the Propontis with its iſlands; farther on, Mount Olympus covered with ſnow; every where the variegated and fertile fields of Asia and Europe—all this aſſemblage exhibits different pictures which captivate and aſtoniſh. One cannot tire in admiring the natural beauty of the environs of Constantinople, and in reflecting at the ſame time on the happy ſituation of that great city, whoſe ſupply of proviſions is ſo expeditiouſly obtained, whoſe defence is ſo eaſy, and whoſe harbour is ſo ſafe, ſo commodious, and ſo extenſive.

We haſtened to land, and quit a veſſel on board of which we had greatly ſuffered. We learnt with pleaſure that the plague was not at Constantinople, and that no uneaſineſs was felt in that reſpect. We were conducted to the houſe of the firſt deputy of commerce: there, we were informed that Citizen Descorches, envoy extraordinary to the Ottoman Porte, appointed

* A ſort of ſteeple in the form of a pillar, in which is made a ſtaircaſe for aſcending to a gallery conſtructed towards the top: it overlooks all the houſes, and frequently is more elevated than the moſque itſelf.

in the place of Citizen SEMONVILLE, who was then no longer expected, was arrived at TRAWNIK, and that he was arrested by the pacha, in consequence of the intrigues of the agents of the courts of ENGLAND, GERMANY, and RUSSIA; that Citizen FONTON, elected provisional chairman in a meeting of merchants, after the departure of the ambassador CHOISEUL, had given in his resignation nearly a month before; and that it was by means of the deputies of commerce that our relations with the PORTE were continued.

After having learned what it concerned us to know, the deputies gave us a janizary to conduct us to the suburb of PERA. It is in this suburb that the ambassadors, the agents of foreign courts, and almost all foreigners reside, with the exception of the merchants who are established at GALATA, being by that means nearer to the harbour and to their commercial affairs. PERA is one of the most populous quarters of the city, notwithstanding its distance from the port and from the centre of business, and the lodgings are extremely dear since the rich Armenians came to settle there, in order to be less exposed to exactions and the insults of the Turks, and to enjoy a little more liberty under the protection of the Europeans.

When we entered the city, we passed rapidly from the first impression of astonishment and admiration occasioned by the beauty of the prospects and by the sight of so many different objects, to a second impression of surprise and distaste. We were disagreeably struck to see it so dirty and so ill built: the streets are narrow, and badly paved; the houses are irregular, mean, and constructed with earth and wood. We were surprised at the silence which reigns every where, at the haughty look and grave carriage of the Mussulmans, at the humble, timid, and servile air of the Jews, Armenians, and even of the Greeks: this contrast is so striking, that the stranger guesses, from the carriage of the man, whether he be a Mussulman

or

or Raya *, without yet knowing the manner of diſtinguiſhing them by their manner of dreſſing their head or their feet.

CONSTANTINOPLE, on our arrival, was no longer ſuch an abode as it had been a few years before. The revolution which was taking place in FRANCE, had cauſed its effects to be felt even in the LEVANT; it had divided the French, and expelled from their houſes gaiety and pleaſure: ſeveral had already put themſelves under foreign protection. The war had juſt ſuſpended trade, and interrupted our communications with FRANCE. The palace of the ambaſſador was deſerted; thoſe of the other legations were ſhut againſt us; almoſt all the droguemans had emigrated; the monks and prieſts of the country deſcribed FRANCE under the moſt diſguſting colours; the Greek women, who before neglected no means to pleaſe the French, and to receive their homages, no longer durſt give themſelves up to them, becauſe they were reprobates whoſe company was to be prohibited, whoſe approach even it was neceſſary to dread.

True it is that the triumph of the prieſts was very ſhort, and that our ſucceſſes in EUROPE, by giving the lie to the groſs impoſtures which our enemies took a pleaſure in ſpreading concerning all the French, preſented us in a more favourable and truer light. The conſtraint of the women did not laſt, and, on our return from PERSIA, CONSTANTINOPLE was an infinitely more agreeable place of reſidence than on our departure.

The preſence of a French agent at the Ottoman PORTE might counteract the projects and derange the hoſtile meaſures which ſeveral of the European governments had juſt taken againſt FRANCE. It was of importance

* Thus are called tributary ſubjects, ſuch as Greeks, Jews, and Armenians.

to prevent the PORTE from acknowledging the French Republic, and admitting her ambaſſador: it was neceſſary to do more, to involve it, if poſſible, in the coalition formed at PILNITZ, and ruin, at all events, the trade of the French in the LEVANT. Citizen DESCORCHES, envoy extraordinary of the Republic, detained for ſome time at TRAWNIK, obtained permiſſion to come to CONSTANTINOPLE only as a ſimple individual. He arrived twenty days after us, under a borrowed name, and alſo under the modeſt title of merchant. He did not reſide in the French palace, and obtained from the PORTE no public character. Our political and commercial relations with this government continued to take place through the medium of the deputies whom the merchants elected annually for the affairs relative to their commerce.

It appears that, at this epoch, the PORTE, faithful to its principles, was not willing to take a part in what was paſſing in EUROPE, and that it was not ſorry that the chriſtians, whom it hates and deſpiſes, ſhould make war with each other; it temporized, according to its cuſtom, and waited events. The people ſaw, with pleaſure, war begun between FRANCE, GERMANY, and RUSSIA; they hoped, by this means, to retake the CRIMEA from the Ruſſians, and thence be revenged for their defeats. It was perceived in all the ſea-ports of the LEVANT, that if the government no longer protected the French with the ſame warmth, the people, on their ſide, were better diſpoſed towards them.

In the mean time an embaſſy extraordinary on the part of RUSSIA was emphatically announced: already the Greeks of PERA were calculating the immenſe profits which they were going to make. The women of intrigue were to find lovers who would indemnify them for the privation of the French; every miſs propoſed, for her own ſhare, to find in this ſuite a

huſband:

husband; the papas * saw in it new penitents: houses were hired and furnished beforehand: the handsomest dresses, the most beautiful attire issued from the wardrobe to be repaired. People, when they met, complimented each other on this grand embassy: they expressed wishes for its expeditious and happy arrival; all were in the most lively impatience.

We then lodged, as well as several other foreigners, at the house of a French traiteur, whose wife was a Greek woman. He was a fool and a drunkard. Led away by his wife, as foolish as mischievous, he put himself under the protection of RUSSIA, and signified to us that we must lay aside our three-coloured cockade, or leave his house. "Such are," added he, "the "orders which I have received from my new ambassador." We made some attempts to reclaim a man hurried away, in spite of himself, into an inconsiderate measure. We observed to him that he turned out at once ten or twelve persons who occupied his lodgings, who promoted his cookery, and yielded him a considerable profit: every thing was useless. "The Russians," said his wife to us disdainfully, "will certainly contrive to make us amends "for this loss." We left the house immediately, and went to occupy the lodging of the *Jeunes-de-Langue* †, which was vacant from their desertion.

After having been a long time expected, the embassy arrived: it was numerous and splendid. The delirium of the Greeks was complete, and was prolonged for some days; but ere long they perceived that they had deceived themselves by an illusion; they soon found that the Russian officer had no great pecuniary means, and that the soldier was on his ration. Besides, there appeared very seasonably a friendly warning of the general-ambassador, by which he gave notice that he would not pay the debts of his officers, and that every one was to look to himself.

* Greek priests. † Pupils intended for droguemans.

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The French who were at CONSTANTINOPLE, found it neceſſary, in theſe circumſtances, to conduct themſelves with prudence, and, nevertheleſs, to diſplay all their courage. Hatred againſt thoſe who had remained faithful to their country, had arrived to ſuch a pitch that the ſervants of the ambaſſador, a few ſoldiers, and the greater part of the Ruſſian officers inſulted them in the ſtreets, and ſnatched from them the three-coloured cockade. A great number of complaints were made, on this ſubject, to the PORTE, through the medium of Citizen DESCORCHES, without it appearing to wiſh to apply any remedy. The patience of the French laſted for ſome time, but at length it had a period; and, though there were not then two hundred, including the merchants and their clerks, people commonly very peaceable, and though the embaſſy was compoſed of eight hundred perſons, the greater number reſolved to arm themſelves, and to repel by force every inſult that ſhould be offered to them. Two or three piſtols loaded only with powder, diſcharged opportunely at the officers, the propoſal made to thoſe who diſplayed moſt boldneſs, to draw their ſword, ſoon put a ſtop to every inſult, and produced an order from the general-ambaſſador not to provoke any longer men ſo haſty and ſo petulant.

A little time after, there arrived a German dancer, an excellent horſeman, who thought to make a fortune among the Turks, by opening, at the extremity of the ſtreet of PERA, a ſort of amphitheatre. This project appeared inconſiderate to thoſe who were acquainted with Oriental manners, and the quick and terrible effects of the plague. They were perſuaded that it would not ſucceed; but they little expected that the German internuncio would arrogate to himſelf the police of this public place, and that he would forbid his *protégé* to admit there any individual wearing the three-coloured cockade. The pleaſantries to which this ridiculous conduct gave riſe, ſoon induced the internuncio to diſavow it. The dancer, on his ſide, frightened at the ſmallneſs of the firſt receipts, publicly made *amende honorable*, and neglected no

means of repairing the loſſes which his ſubmiſſion to the orders that he had received had at firſt occaſioned him.

What contributed, on the one hand, to the inſolence of ſome agents of CATHERINE and FRANCIS, and, on the other, to the weak and wavering conduct of the PORTE, was that TOULON had juſt been delivered up to the Engliſh, and that people were perſuaded that the Jacobins (thus it is that almoſt all the French were at that time diſtinguiſhed) would ſoon be puniſhed for their audacity. Fortunately TOULON was retaken, and then the PORTE appeared to wiſh to protect us a little more effectually.

If the Ruſſians and the Germans of thoſe two legations conducted themſelves, at that period, with the greateſt indecorum towards us, and in a manner little worthy of the rank which they held, it muſt be confeſſed that this was not the caſe with the greater part of the other legations; and, were we not afraid of committing them with their government, we might quote a great number of perſons who beheld with pleaſure the efforts which the French were making to level the throne, and give themſelves a free and conſtituted government.

CHAPTER III.

Character of the Muſſulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews.—Population of Conſtantinople.—*Means of exiſtence of its inhabitants.*

CONSTANTINOPLE affords a mixture of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Europeans, whence reſults a very great diverſity in manners, religion, and language. The Turks are there much more numerous than the others, and are ſpread throughout the whole extent of the city and ſuburbs. The Greeks form nearly one ſixth of the population; they have a quarter ſituated towards the head of the harbour, diſtinguiſhed by the Greek name of *fanaraki* or *fanal*. A great number, however, inhabit PERA and GALATA, and live among the Franks*. The Armenians are ſomewhat leſs numerous than the Greeks: they reſide in the interior of the city, and in the ſuburbs; but the greater part of the rich, as we have before ſaid, have ſome time ſince come to inhabit PERA, and eſtabliſh themſelves among the Franks, yet without mixing with them. The Jews are the leaſt numerous: they live in the heart of the city. A few of them are eſtabliſhed at PERA and GALATA, and ſerve as brokers to the merchants.

The ambaſſadors and agents of foreign powers at the Ottoman PORTE, and the Europeans whom commerce attracts to CONSTANTINOPLE, frequently form a population of upwards of two thouſand perſons. Almoſt all the ſeamen remain on board their ſhips. The merchants are ſettled at GALATA, in order to be more within reach of the harbour and the city; but the reaſon

* This is the name given by the Turks indiſcriminately to all Europeans.

which

which moſt determines them to inhabit that quarter, is that they occupy houſes built in maſonry; that they have, for their goods, ſtore-houſes ſubſtantially conſtructed; that all the windows have copper-ſhutters; in a word, that they have neglected nothing for the ſafety of their perſons and for the protection of their property from the fires to which this city is inceſſantly expoſed.

There are none but Muſſulmans, whether Turks or Arabs, who hold the places or employments of the government, the dignities of the empire, and who are received among the janizaries and into the other military corps, with the exception of the navy alone, in which the greater part of the ſailors are Greeks, as we ſhall mention elſewhere more in detail. Some carry on an extenſive commerce; a greater number give themſelves up to retail trade, and to the different mechanic arts, to the ſtudy of the laws and of religion, and to the art of writing.

The Muſſulmans have, in general, little education, a great deal of fanaticiſm, and a ridiculous pride. The ſtudy of thoſe who apply themſelves to literature and to the ſciences, relates to the Koran and to the interpretations which various Muſſulman authors have given of it, to the laws which have emanated from it, and to the ſentences of the civilians. They apply themſelves to poetry, to the ſtudy of the Perſian and Arabic, and to aſtrology. Few among them have any ſmattering of mathematics and aſtronomy. Their phyſic conſiſts in ſome practices tranſmitted from father to ſon. They have no idea of natural hiſtory, phyſics, geography, naval affairs, and military tactics. They are acquainted with hiſtory only as far as it relates to them, and they are, with reſpect to other nations, and even with reſpect to thoſe who have preceded them on the territory which they occupy, in the moſt complete ignorance. Almoſt all the arts are in a ſtate of infancy, or are unknown among

them, if we except dyeing, the manufacture of various cloths, and that of ſword and knife blades.

For a long time paſt the Europeans, and eſpecially the French, have been deſirous to tranſmit to them knowledge in ſome of the uſeful arts, and they have ſucceeded but imperfectly, becauſe national pride, ignorance, and fanaticiſm oppoſe the meaſure. It is the French who have taught them to caſt cannon and mortars, to build ſhips, to make muſkets, bayonets, and gun-carriages, to work up iron and even ſilver, and to manufacture ſoap. National good-will had arrived to ſuch a pitch that we ſhould ſoon have taught them to diſpenſe with our manufactures. The war which has juſt been declared, will, doubtleſs, bring about a new order of things. The conduct of the Turkiſh government and of individuals, in regard to the agents of the Republic and of the merchants ſettled among them, will unqueſtionably point out what is the moſt ſuitable manner of treating in future with this anti-ſocial nation.

The Greeks are gay, witty, and cunning: they exerciſe various trades, carry on ſome commerce, apply themſelves to maritime affairs, viſit the different towns of the coaſt, and never travel far inland, except into European TURKEY. They delight in muſic and dancing. In the reſt of the empire, they give themſelves up to agriculture with a tolerable degree of intelligence. The rich are well informed, ſupple, and very intriguing; they ſtudy languages, and ſpare nothing to be employed as phyſicians, as drogue-mans, or as men of buſineſs by the Turks who hold the firſt places of the empire. The ancient families court the honour of furniſhing the firſt drogue-man of the PORTE, and of obtaining the ſovereignty of WALACHIA and MOLDAVIA, notwithſtanding the peril attached to thoſe eminent places.

They are, in general, ſuperſtitious, timid, and exact obſervers of faſts and lents. The prieſts are very numerous, and exhibit manners ſomewhat auſtere.

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The ſuperior clergy are alſo well informed and tolerably rich: the rectors and other eccleſiaſtics are poor and very ignorant.

The Armenians are all traders; in the Ottoman Empire, it is they who are engaged in the greateſt traffic, and who carry it on with the moſt intelligence. They are patient, economical, and indefatigable; they travel into the interior of ASIA and into INDIA; they have ſtore-houſes and correſpondents every where. The greater part of them exerciſe mechanic arts; they are bankers, contractors, and men of buſineſs of the pachas or other great perſonages. They are reproached with ſparing no means of enriching themſelves, and of cheating, when they have an opportunity, in the quality of merchandiſe. Nevertheleſs, in endeavouring to gain the moſt they poſſibly can, they ſeldom fail in their engagements, and are punctual in the performance of their promiſes.

Auſtere in their manners, exact obſervers of the precepts of their religion, ignorant and ſuperſtitious, they need only education and a government leſs oppreſſive and more juſt than that of the Turks, to become a very eſtimable people.

The Jews preſent themſelves here under colours far more unfavourable than in EUROPE. More ignorant, more poor, more fanatic, they give themſelves up to every kind of trade and to all profeſſions, even the very loweſt. Few among them are phyſicians, droguemans, or men of buſineſs: not one is a cultivator. All trade to them is good if it yield a profit, however trifling it may be. The rich practiſe uſury, lend money on pledges at an intereſt of two or three per cent. by the month, and even more according to circumſtances. They are brokers, bankers, or traders. The Turkiſh cuſtom-houſe officers make uſe of them for valuing goods and collecting the duties.

As auſtere in their manners as the Armenians, as greedy after gain, leſs delicate, leſs honeſt when they deal with a man of a different religion, the Jews live among each other, occupy remote quarters, and tremble at the ſight of a Muſſulman. Their anti-ſocial religion will always ſeparate them from other nations, and will inſulate them, in a town, from the other inhabitants, as long as they ſhall be ſufficiently ignorant to believe the laws of their legiſlator, and the puerile precepts of their rabbis, emanated from the Divinity.

The inhabitants of this great city, including thoſe of the ſuburbs of PERA, GALATA, ST. DIMITRI, thoſe of SCUTARI, and of all the villages ſituated on the BOSPHORUS, and in the environs, may be eſtimated at upwards of five hundred thouſand, according to the daily conſumption of flour that is there made. As no regiſters of births or deaths are kept in the Ottoman Empire, one can never correctly aſcertain the population of the towns of TURKEY, where the manners and the mode of life of the inhabitants are ſo different from thoſe of the Europeans, where the women are almoſt always ſhut up, and where the rich men go out of their houſes as ſeldom as poſſible; but, in CONSTANTINOPLE, the government cauſing a diſtribution to be made of the flour and corn which are conſumed in the city and its environs, and this diſtribution being well known *, we can carry the population to five hundred thouſand inhabitants, ſuppoſing that the men, women, and children eat a pound and a half of flour per day. If the reader obſerve that, in all the EAST, much leſs meat is eaten than in the north of EUROPE, but that a much greater conſumption is there made of bread, rice, paſtry, milk,

* There are diſtributed about fifteen thouſand kilos of corn per day, which are equivalent to three thouſand one hundred and ſixty-four ſeptiers of *Paris*. The kilo weighs from eighteen to twenty-two okes, according to the quality of the corn. The oke is nearly equal to forty ounces and a half.

and

and fruit, he will judge that the calculation which we prefent is tolerably juft. True it is that we muft take into the account the introduction of fome thoufands of quintals of fmuggled flour and corn, per day, which takes place notwithftanding the vigilance of the government *; but this article is not fufficiently important to produce a difference of twenty thoufand inhabitants †.

When we reprefent to ourfelves in EUROPE a city like CONSTANTINOPLE, we are, doubtlefs, inclined to imagine that the means of exiftence there are fimilar to thofe of the great cities which we inhabit: we are perfuaded that a great number of inhabitants poffefs landed property from which they derive an annual income, and that all the others live by their induftry. We imagine that we fee the environs of the city perfectly well cultivated, embellifhed with manfions, country-houfes, and adorned with farms and gardens. We figure to ourfelves that a city fo happily fituated affords public walks and places of recreation; in a word, we imagine that CONSTANTINOPLE refembles, in many refpects, all the great cities of EUROPE.

If we caft our eyes on the immenfe population of CONSTANTINOPLE, we fhall, perhaps, be aftonifhed to fee that almoft all the inhabitants of that great city derive their means of exiftence from the Grand Signior, from the

* Private perfons are forbidden to fell or diftribute corn or flour.

† ETON, in his *Survey of the Turkifh Empire*, (2d edition, page 282) eftimating the population of CONSTANTINOPLE, and taking the daily confumption of flour made in that city as the bafis of his calculation, gives the following refult. — *Tranflator.*

" In CONSTANTINOPLE and its environs there are daily confumed from nine to eleven thou-
" fand kilos of corn. Experience has proved, that one perfon confumes nine kilos a year, one
" with another. One kilo of wheat is twenty-two okes, which renders eighteen okes of flour, of
" which they make twenty-feven okes of bread, as their bread is very moift, made into flat
" cakes feemingly half baked. An oke is about two pounds and three quarters Englifh avoir-
" dupois weight. According to this calculation, the medium number of inhabitants would be
" 426,000 fouls."

great employments of the government, from hiring themſelves as ſervants, or from ſome private induſtry; that a great part of the money of the empire is ſwallowed up in the capital by means of impoſts, cuſtom-houſe duties, and the right of ſucceſſion which the ſovereign preſerves over all his agents; by the confiſcations in which he indulges, by the ſale of all employments, of all places and all dignities, military, adminiſtrative, judicial, and religious; by the great revenues enjoyed by the moſques and the principal officers of the crown; laſtly, by the voluntary or forced preſents which every man in place annually makes to thoſe who protect him with the PORTE, ſupport and defend him, as well as to the men of buſineſs who watch over his intereſt, apprize him of all the changes which happen, and of all the dangers by which he is threatened.

Almoſt all the revenues of the royal treaſury are conſumed in CONSTANTINOPLE, becauſe there it is that the national eſtabliſhments are, and that, in the provinces, there neither are armies, navy, arſenals, nor fortreſſes kept up at the expenſe of the Grand Signior. The governors, pachas, mutſelims or waiwodes, very far from deriving emoluments from the PORTE, pour, on the contrary, annually into the treaſury a ſum more or leſs conſiderable, according to the extent and the nature of their government. The molhas, the cadis diſtribute juſtice for a duty of ten per cent. and various eſcheats. The janizaries and other ſoldiers receive a very moderate daily pay, taken from the revenues of the province: they equip themſelves at their own expenſe, and join their colours in time of war, without the Grand Signior remitting the ſmalleſt ſum of money for that purpoſe. The officers or agas have patrimonies for life, by means of which they are bound, on the firſt ſummons, to repair to the army, and to take with them, and at their coſt, a certain number of ſoldiers.

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All the eſtabliſhments relating to the navy are at CONSTANTINOPLE. Ships of war are not repaired, equipped, and manned in any other port. It is there that ſhips are chiefly built. True it is that, at this moment, there are dock-yards at SINOPE, at the head of the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE and at RHODES, becauſe thoſe countries are within reach of the timber for ſhip-building; but the ſum of money which iſſues from the capital, for this object, is by no means conſiderable, and is but a temporary remittance; beſides, the pachas moſt frequently provide for theſe expenſes.

The fortreſſes are kept up by the pachas on whoſe territories they are ſituated; accordingly, they are almoſt all in bad condition: the greater part of them even are falling into ruins. The Grand Signior, in this reſpect, is eaſily deceived, becauſe he receives annually an account of expenſes by which he is impoſed on: and if the ſuſpicion of infidelity or complaints induced him to ſend any one to the ſpot to verify the facts, a ſum of money given by the pacha would almoſt always be ſufficient for obtaining a favourable report; but were the latter diſplaced, or even were his head cut off, the ſucceſſor would not, on that account, put the fortreſs into better condition; he would at firſt make a few unimportant repairs, and would interrupt them as ſoon as he had taken the means fit for inſuring his impunity.

All the coin of TURKEY, if we except CAIRO, is ſtruck at CONSTANTINOPLE, and yields for the moment a conſiderable revenue to the Grand Signior, becauſe he has adulterated it to ſuch a degree that it has not half of the value of that of the ſultans his predeceſſors, and becauſe he has cauſed it to be circulated for a value equal to that which it had before. Foreign coin has, indeed, greatly increaſed; but it is not yet at the price at which it ought to arrive, becauſe the balance of trade is to the advantage of this empire. This is not the caſe with INDIA, as I ſhall ſay in another place, where TURKEY has

ſcarcely

ſcarcely any thing to furniſh. None but old coin is received there, and that of VENICE, HUNGARY, and SPAIN is ſtill preferred, as moſt pure.

According to an approximate eſtimate, we may carry to two hundred millions of our livres all the money poured annually into CONSTANTINOPLE from the different towns and provinces of the empire. It appears that the revenue of the PORTE and of the Grand Signior *, including the produce of the coining of ſpecie, is about one hundred and fifty millions of our money †: the preſents given to the men in place, the fees of men of buſineſs, the revenue of the moſques, that of the great, all theſe exceed not fifty millions. This calculation gives us upwards of three hundred livres per year for the maintenance of each individual; which is fully ſufficient. I obſerve that the induſtry of CONSTANTINOPLE is limited almoſt entirely to the wants of the inhabitants, and that the principal trade which is there carried on, relates only to the conſumption of the city. The carrying-trade is too inconſiderable to draw from abroad a ſum of money of any importance.

It is ſeen, by what we have juſt ſaid, that this city is, at the preſent moment, indebted for its great population only to the preſence of the ſovereign, to the expenſes of his palace, and to all the public eſtabliſhments which are there fixed. But if CONSTANTINOPLE profited at the ſame time of the advantages given it by its happy poſition between the BLACK SEA and the MEDITERRANEAN, between EUROPE and ASIA; if it turned to account the extent, the ſafety, and the convenience of its harbour, ſo ſuitable for favouring a great trade; if induſtry aſſumed a greater activity; if the objects of art were ſcattered throughout the whole empire and even beyond it; if the inhabitants ſought in the culture of the lands the ſubſiſtence which they want and the aliment of a part of the manufactories; in ſhort, if they ſucceeded in putting a

* The revenue of the State is diſtinct from that of the Sultan.

† We ſhall give ſome details on this ſubject, in the courſe of theſe travels.

ſtop

ſtop to the plague, that moſt deſtructive ſcourge of the human ſpecies, it is not to be doubted that this city would ſoon become of an immenſe extent and of a population perhaps too conſiderable.

The richeſt private individuals of the empire do not come hither to ſpend their income in effeminacy and idleneſs, or diſſipate their fortunes in the hazards of play, in the pleaſures of love, or in the luxury of the table. The agas or lords remain on their eſtates in order to preſerve them, defend them, and make the moſt of them. The pachas cannot quit their government without an order of the ſovereign. The molhas and the cadis exerciſe juſtice in the towns whither they have received orders to repair: both the one and the other come to intrigue at CONSTANTINOPLE only when they are diſplaced.

Moſt frequently they avoid even the too ſevere looks of the government: they have eſtabliſhed agents, men of buſineſs who intrigue for them, who exculpate them with money, who level difficulties with money, and who procure them advancement with money. Here all dignities are ſold to the higheſt bidder; all employments are put up to auction; no lucrative place is obtained without a preſent more or leſs conſiderable.

There is a claſs of men who have no other profeſſion than that of lending, at an exorbitant intereſt, to the ambitious who could not obtain places without this means; to the extortioners who wiſh to cauſe their crimes to be forgotten and to maintain themſelves in their places, to thoſe whom a powerful enemy would wiſh to deſtroy, and to thoſe, in ſhort, who want, by a great and ſpeedy ſacrifice, to redeem their head threatened by the ſword of the law or by the will of the ſultan.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the ſeraglio of the Grand Signior.—Of the eunuchs, pages, gardeners, mutes, dwarfs, and capidgis.

THE number of perſons attached to the Grand Signior, to his palace, and to his different country-houſes, is extremely conſiderable, and their maintenance very expenſive; it may even be ſaid that, in this reſpect, no ſovereign in EUROPE can be compared to him from the interior luxury of the ſeraglio, the munificence which he there diſplays, and perhaps even from the riches which are there contained.

The law of MAHOMET allows, as is well known, every Muſſulman, not only four legitimate wives; but it alſo authorizes him to take for concubines ſuch a number of ſlaves as he pleaſes, and as his ſituation or his riches enable him to maintain. The Grand Signior, from a ſentiment of pride or from political motives, muſt not marry like his ſubjects; he thinks himſelf too much above the reſt of mankind to involve himſelf with a woman by the ties of marriage, and place her, in ſome meaſure, in the ſame rank as himſelf. He has an indeterminate number of female ſlaves deſtined to his pleaſures and to give him ſucceſſors. But among this great number, ſeven of them only, after having enjoyed more or leſs the favours of the ſultan, are raiſed to a rank above the others: they become his favourites: it is they who participate moſt commonly in his pleaſures, and who ſometimes acquire no ſmall degree of influence over public affairs. They are diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Kadeun* *.

* The *n* at the end of the word is pronounced.

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The ſlave who becomes the mother of a boy is called *Haſſekee:* ſhe has a houſe and ſlaves; ſhe obtains a diſtinguiſhed rank; ſhe is treated with the greateſt reſpect; ſhe enjoys a ſort of liberty in the interior of the harem *; in a word, ſhe approaches the ſultan as often as ſhe wiſhes. But if her ſon happen to die, ſhe returns among the *Kadeuns* if ſhe be not ſent to the old ſeraglio.

The other ſlaves are called *Odaliks*, from the word *Oda*, which ſignifies chamber †. If one of them be pregnant, ſhe is treated with a great deal of attention; the eunuchs ſerve her with the greateſt reſpect when the ſultan has as yet no male children; ſhe finds herſelf, on the contrary, in a very critical ſituation when he has any by a ſlave in favour. She is fortunate then if ſhe eſcape by miſcarrying or ſeeing the being that ſhe has juſt brought into the world ſmothered at its birth. For one of theſe odaliks to become kadeun, an honour extremely in requeſt and ardently wiſhed for by all, it is neceſſary that the Grand Signior ſhould ſend one of the ſeven favourites to the old ſeraglio, the place of exile for his women who have miſbehaved or have had the misfortune to diſpleaſe.

To the old ſeraglio ‡ are likewiſe ſent all the wives of the ſultan who has juſt died or has been depoſed; they are there fed and maintained with ſome luxury, and ſerved with much attention; but they can no longer go out of this place of retirement: it would not be decent in the eyes of the Muſſulmans, that a ſlave, ſuppoſed to have enjoyed the favours of a ſultan, ſhould paſs into the arms of another man. There is only the mother of the new ſultan, called *Validai-Sultana*, who has her liberty, a palace, and revenues. The new harem is ſoon repleniſhed, becauſe traders come from all quarters to

* *Harem* or ſacred place, prohibited place: this is the lodging of the women, diſtinct from that of the men, among all the Mahometans.

† The *Odaliks* are diſtributed by chambers.

‡ *Eſki ſeraï:* it was conſtructed by MAHOMET II.

offer young ſlaves, and the pachas and the great are eager to preſent beauties capable of fixing the attention of the ſovereign; they hope by that means to obtain inſtantly his good graces, and place about his perſon women who may one day be uſeful to them.

Travellers have improperly called ſultanas the wives of the Grand Signior: this name is given in TURKEY only to the princeſſes of the blood, daughters of a ſultan, or, as we have ſaid before, to the mother of him who occupies the throne. The daughters of the ſultanas no longer bear any other name but that of *Kanoum-Sultana.*

It is very difficult, and perhaps impoſſible, to learn exactly the manner in which the female ſlaves are treated in the harem of the Grand Signior: never has the eye of the obſerver penetrated into this abode of hatred, jealouſy, and pride; into this abode where pleaſure and love have ſo ſeldom reſided. But, according to the account of the women whoſe profeſſion calls them thither, the reader may repreſent to himſelf three or four hundred black eunuchs, malicious, peeviſh, tormented by their impotence, curſing their nullity, endeavouring to counteract the female ſlaves intruſted to their charge; then a conſiderable number of young women whoſe hearts would willingly expand, whoſe ſenſes are moved at the idea of the pleaſures which they wiſh in vain to know, jealous of the happineſs which they are perſuaded that their rivals enjoy, curſing the overſeers who perplex them, ſolely taken up with their toilet, with their dreſs, and with all the nonſenſe which idleneſs and ignorance can ſuggeſt to them; ſeeking, rather from vanity than from love, every means of pleaſing a maſter too frequently diſdainful. We may repreſent to ourſelves, in ſhort, a ſultan young or old, maſtered by ridiculous prejudices, without delicacy, often whimſical or capricious, alone in the midſt of five or ſix hundred women all equally beautiful, in whom he gives birth to deſires which he is unable to gratify, who enjoys with them no pleaſures but ſuch as

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are too eafy and without prelude, in which the heart has no fhare, and we fhall have a true idea of what paffes in the harem of the Grand Signior.

The charge of the women is intrufted only to black eunuchs, whofe mutilation is fuch, that there remains no trace of their fex. Oriental jealoufy has very rightly judged that fuch creatures were rather capable of infpiring fentiments of hatred and contempt, than thofe of affection and friendfhip, which would not have failed to take birth if the charge of the harem had been intrufted to women. It was not enough to condemn thefe unfortunate females to long privations, never to let them know of love only what was to excite in them defires, it was even neceffary to deprive them of the confolation of opening their heart in the bofom of friendfhip.

The chief of the black eunuchs, called *Kiflar-Aga*, is one of the greateft perfonages of the empire: he it is who carries to the female flaves the will of his mafter; he it is who announces to them the happinefs which they have to pleafe him *. Independently of the authority which he exercifes in the harem, he has the fuperintendance of all the imperial mofques; he is charged with the general adminiftration of all the pious foundations which relate to them; he has the pre-eminence over the chief of the white eunuchs, and, what is more flattering to a flave, he more frequently approaches his mafter, and more commonly enjoys his confidence. His income is very confiderable.

The *Khafne-Vekili* is the fecond eunuch of the feraglio: he replaces the *Kiflar-Aga* when he dies or is turned out of office. He has the general adminiftration of the interior imperial treafure, which muft be diftinguifhed from the private treafure of the Grand Signior, adminiftered by the *Khafnadar-Aga*, one of the pages of confidence. There are fome other eunuchs raifed in dignity, fuch as he who belongs to the queen-mother, he to whom the

* All that is faid refpecting the handkerchief prefented or thrown to the female flave who pleafes the fultan, is falfe, and fcarcely deferves to figure in a romance.

care of the princes is intrusted, those who serve the royal mosque of the sultana *Validai*, whither the slaves of the Grand Signior go to say their prayers; he who has the particular superintendance of the apartment of the *Hassekee*, and a few others whose functions are less important.

The white eunuchs do not approach the women: they are employed out of the harem, and in the particular service of the sultan. They have the charge of the gates of the seraglio; they superintend and instruct the pages. Their chief is called *Capou-Agassi*.

About the middle of the street of PERA, is remarked a considerable palace in which a great number of young lads are lodged, boarded and maintained at the expense of the State: they are called *Ichoglans*. They are destined to be pages to the sultan and to occupy the principal charges of the court. *Codjas* or preceptors come every day to teach them Turkish, Arabic, and Persian, and instruct them in writing and in the precepts of the Koran. They are all exercised in throwing the djerid *, in riding on horseback, and in handling the sabre with dexterity: they are at the same time accustomed to the functions which they are to discharge about the person of the sovereign. A great number of them are likewise brought up in the interior of the seraglio. The white eunuchs, to whose care they are intrusted, treat them with the greatest severity, and punish them rigorously for the smallest fault that they commit. They are clothed in white, and fed with temperance. They are children of christians taken in war, or purchased in GEORGIA and CIRCASSIA: some of them come from various frontiers of the empire and from the States of BARBARY: sons of Mussulmans are also admitted there, since the Turks no longer carry on war against the christians with as many advantages as they did formerly.

* A light stick, which supplies the place of the Arabic lance in mock-fights.

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The Ichlogans who have well profited by their ſtudies, thoſe who diſplay the moſt capacity and intelligence, are the firſt admitted among the pages; they ſucceſſively fill the vacant places, and occupy in their turn the greateſt offices of the ſeraglio. They frequently receive very lucrative commiſſions from the ſovereign, and rich preſents from thoſe for whom they ſolicit and obtain employments.

Among the young people taken in war, purchaſed or brought from all quarters, the greater number, under the name of *Adjem-Oglan*, are intended for the meaner employments of the ſeraglio: porters, wood-cutters, cooks, butchers, water-carriers are made of them; in a word, ſervants of every ſort: there are ſeldom among them ſons of Muſſulmans. When their number is conſiderable, ſome of them have been turned over among the gardeners.

The *Boſtangees* or gardeners are about ten thouſand in number; their chief is called *Boſtangee-Bachi;* his power is very extenſive. He has not only the abſolute command over all the palaces and gardens of the Grand Signior; but he is, beſides, at the head of the police of the environs of the capital and of the channel, as far as the mouth of the Black Sea. He repreſſes debauchery, and puniſhes theft, and other exceſſes which are committed. He ſteers the caïque of the Grand Signior when he goes on the water, and he accompanies him every where on horſeback when he goes out in ſtate. This officer is of the number of the four *rickab agaleri* or officers of the court, obliged to accompany his highneſs wherever he goes in ceremony. The other three are called *buyuk imbrohor*, or great equerry, *kurchuk imbrohor*, or little equerry, and *capidjilar kiayaſſi*, or great chamberlain.

The boſtangees are generally ſons of Muſſulmans; they receive a tolerably good pay, and are almoſt all married. They row with the greateſt dexterity

terity the caïques of the ſultan; they ſuperintend his gardens and his palaces, and ſpread themſelves over the villages and country-places of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the channel, in order to exerciſe there an active and ſalutary ſuperintendance. Eſtabliſhed under the reign of the firſt emperors, they were for a long time the nurſery of the beſt ſoldiers. Thoſe among them who diſplayed the moſt courage, the moſt ſtrength, and above all the moſt fanaticiſm, were turned over among the janizaries.

According to oriental manners, there are no viſits, no ſecret conferences, without the ſervants or ſlaves being preſent: politeneſs requires that coffee ſhould be brought, that from time to time a pipe, filled and lighted, ſhould be preſented; and, according to the rank and dignity of the ſtranger, ſherbet, eſſences, and perfumes ſhould be offered him. Even when a Muſſulman is alone, he muſt now and then have a pipe and ſome coffee. The want of being continually waited on has, no doubt, ſuggeſted to the Turks the idea of being attended by the deaf and dumb, when they have occaſion to treat of any important affair. The ſultan has, in his palace, forty deaf and dumb perſons who wait on him in conjunction with his pages. Moſt of the great have ſome alſo; but there is, in this reſpect, a great deal of roguery of which men too credulous and too unguarded may be the dupe. I frequently ſaw at the houſe of Citizen DESCORCHES, during the firſt days of his arrival, a man who was reckoned deaf and dumb, with whom converſation was carried on in Turkiſh, in writing, and who communicated the intrigues of the court and the anecdotes of the town. He lent too attentive an ear to all the diſcourſe which was held, for any perſon not to be ſoon perſuaded that he knew more than one language, and that his ears ſerved him tolerably well. When he thought himſelf unmaſked, he ceaſed to act a part no longer uſeful.

It has often been repeated, improperly, that mutes were ſometimes commiſſioned to go and ſtrangle the victims that the ſultan devoted to death: it

it is generally the capidgis-bachis, of whom we ſhall ſpeak preſently, that diſcharge thoſe functions, either in the capital, or in the provinces.

The Grand Signior likewiſe maintains a tolerably great number of dwarfs, as little calculated to ſerve as to amuſe him. When theſe ſhrimps are at the ſame time deaf and dumb, their conſequence increaſes, and they are treated with much greater reſpect.

The *capidgis* or porters, whoſe number is rather conſiderable, keep watch at the outer gates of the palace. They muſt not be confounded with the *capidgis-bachis*, a ſort of chamberlains, whoſe place is honourable and lucrative, and who are charged to execute the orders which they receive from the ſultan, thoſe, for example, to cut off the head of a rebel or extortioner, to carry the news of the appointment to a government, to go and collect the ſucceſſions of the great officers of the empire, &c. Their chief, always taken from this claſs, is called *mir-alem*. The capidgis-bachis are ſometimes raiſed to the dignity of pacha with two tails, and go in that quality to govern the province which is allotted them.

CHAPTER V.

Of the caïques.—Of the captain-pacha.—Of the Turkiſh navy.—Of the galiondgis.—Advantages of the harbour of Conſtantinople.

A SIGHT really beautiful, and which one cannot ſufficiently admire from the French palace, and from all the elevated places whence the eye looks down on the harbour and over the Sea of MARMORA, is the arrival and departure of the ſhips and large boats coming in and going out under full ſail, and the continual movement of a great number of caïques generally manned by two or three rowers, inceſſantly croſſing the harbour in every direction, and proceeding with celerity to all the villages of the BOSPHORUS, to SCUTARI, to PRINCES' Iſlands, and to every place in the environs. Theſe caïques, thus named in the country, are long narrow boats, extremely light, equipped with one, two, or three pairs of oars, ſeldom with four. They carry one or two, and even three ſails, which are ſet only in fine weather, or when the wind is not too ſtrong. Theſe boats are not provided with ballaſt, and are ſo buoyant, that a breeze rather ſtiff would overſet them, if the boatman did not take care to let go the ſheet on the ſmalleſt danger, and to throw the boat up in the wind by ſhifting the helm. The number of theſe caïques is ſo conſiderable, and they divide the water with ſuch velocity, that ſometimes all the ſkill of the rowers cannot prevent them from running foul of each other, and one of the two from being overſet, eſpecially when the weather is bad; for then the rowers do not form a ſufficiently-correct judgment of the effect of the wind on a boat ſo light, and which preſents a great deal of ſurface out of the water. In ſuch caſes, it is proper to know how to ſwim and to be able to gain the ſhore: aſſiſtance is ſeldom given to thoſe to whom ſuch

a misfortune happens, becauſe there would be too much danger for him who would wiſh to ſave one of the unfortunate beings; he would run the riſk of being himſelf overſet in wiſhing to take the other man into his boat.

The conſtruction of theſe caïques leaves nothing to be wiſhed for in point of the elegance of their form and the ſwiftneſs of their ſailing. Two hours are ſufficient, with even a light breeze, to ſail from CONSTANTINOPLE to PRINCES' Iſlands, diſtant from ten to twelve miles; and notwithſtanding the contrary wind and current, three rowers never take more time for reaching BUYUK-DÉRÉ, diſtant fifteen miles.

The caïques belonging to the ſultan are remarkable for their ſize, their gilding, their elegance, and the number and dexterity of the rowers: they carry fourteen pairs of oars, and are manned by twenty-eight boſtangees dreſſed in white: the boſtangee-bachi, as we have before ſaid, is the cock-ſwain or ſteerſman. The caïque of the grand viſir has twelve pairs of oars; that of the principal officers of the PORTE, and of the ambaſſadors of foreign powers have ſeven pairs. In theſe large caïques one man is neceſſarily required for each oar; while thoſe of private perſons are ſufficiently narrow for a ſingle man to make uſe of two oars at a time.

The ſultan ſeldom goes on the water in winter; but, in the ſummer, he frequently repairs to the different palaces which he has on the channel of the BLACK SEA, or to the palace of the freſh waters, ſituated two leagues from the city, in the narrow valley watered by the little river which empties itſelf into the head of the harbour, and whoſe tranquil ſtream permits the caïques to aſcend it to that diſtance. The cannon never fails to announce the departure and the arrival of the ſultan: any one may eaſily procure himſelf the ſatisfaction of ſeeing his highneſs paſs. His caïque is diſtinguiſhed by a beautiful

 crimſon

crimſon awning, ſpread towards the ſtern. Various caïques of the ſame ſize, in which are the principal officers, come next; he is preceded and followed by a great number of others.

Before we enter into any details on the ſubject of the Turkiſh navy, we think it our duty to ſay a word of the *capitan-pacha*, whoſe zeal and activity have never relaxed ſince he has commanded the naval forces of the Ottoman Empire, and has been at the head of all the maritime eſtabliſhments. He enjoys with SELIM III. an influence which time ſeems to increaſe and ſtrengthen. In that happy age when the heart is ſtill in all its purity, and at the time when the cruel miſtruſt of the ſovereign held as priſoner the heir of the empire, HUSSEIN, born in CIRCASSIA, was a ſlave to young SELIM; he ſoon became the flatterer of all his taſtes, the confidant of his heart, and his intimate friend. The connexions of infancy are ſubject to experience changes and viciſſitudes reſulting from the caprices of that age; but reaſon almoſt always conſolidates what a mutual inclination has begun: the friends of youth are reciprocally attached for the remainder of life.

A fortunate circumſtance happened to ſtrengthen the Grand Signior's attachment to the captain-pacha. The intrigues of the ſeraglio, it is ſaid, threatened the life of SELIM, before he had arrived at the throne of his anceſtors: a hint given him by a ſlave of the ſeraglio, ſiſter to HUSSEIN, ſaved him from deſtruction. Since then his gratitude has been unbounded; SELIM, ſcarcely ſeated on the throne, married the daughter of ABDUL HAMID to HUSSEIN, and loaded him with favours: he made him ſuperintendant of the navy, and High Admiral. The latter, brought up in the ſeraglio, without knowledge and without ſtudy, appointed to one of the firſt places of the empire, and maſter of all the maritime forces, was a moment embarraſſed, when he ſaw about him no man ſufficiently intelligent to enlighten him and guide his ſteps;

ſteps; but preſently, in imitation of his predeceſſor, he ſent for French builders and ſhipwrights to direct the works of the arſenal, and puſh on with activity the veſſels which he reſolved to conſtruct.

HASSAN-pacha, his predeceſſor, a greater man than he, but full as ignorant, frequently counteracted in his projects, becauſe he had not, like the latter, the entire confidence of his maſter, had cauſed to be built as many ſhips as the finances of the State and circumſtances would allow. He had called in a French builder, named *LEROI*, and had permitted him to give to the Turkiſh ſhips the European form which they had not before. The preſent captain-pacha had only to follow the ſteps of HASSAN; but, being more fortunate, he found in the attachment of the ſovereign all the pecuniary means fit for favouring his projects.

The laſt two wars with RUSSIA, the iſſue of which had been ſo unfortunate, had made the Grand Signior and the Divan ſenſible of the neceſſity of having a powerful navy, as well for defending the poſſeſſions of the BLACK SEA and of the ARCHIPELAGO, as for ſecuring the capital from all inſult on the part of the Ruſſians. And, indeed, the captain-pacha has had the facility of tranſmitting into the department of the navy the major part of the revenues of the State, and by this means of cauſing a great number of ſhips to be built. We may, at this moment, carry the Turkiſh navy to twenty ſail of the line, one of which is a three-decker; to upwards of twenty frigates or ſloops, ſome of which are of forty guns; and to various other ſmall veſſels. On our departure, in the year VI. (1798) ſhip-building was puſhed on with the greateſt activity, at the head of the BLACK SEA, at SINOPE, in the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE, and at RHODES. And ſhould nothing derange the projects of the captain-pacha, or divert the funds appropriated at this moment to the navy, it is not to be doubted that the

PORTE

PORTE will ſoon have a conſiderable number of ſhips like thoſe of the European powers: but will it have a ſufficiency of ſailors to man them, and of officers ſkilful enough to direct their movements?

Unfortunately the captain-pacha has not the great views of a ſtateſman, and the knowledge which his place requires: he employs himſelf with the ſmalleſt details, with the minuteneſs of a man who has more good-will than talents. He is himſelf ſeen to direct the works of the arſenal, and there to ſpend the whole day, in order to ſtimulate the workmen by his preſence; but, too confined in his conceptions, he has thought to be able to form a navy by ſimply ordering the conſtruction of a great number of ſhips: he has not encouraged trade, he has not even reſolved on plans for the formation of ſeamen. There has, indeed, long exiſted a mathematical ſchool in the arſenal: under TOTT, another ſchool was formed for navigation: but they have not received the encouragement which they would require, and the knowledge of the profeſſors is too limited for theſe ſchools to be at this moment of great utility.

The Turks, in general, are not fond of the ſea; they cannot conform to the active life which a ſeaman is obliged to lead; they cannot accuſtom themſelves to the privations which that profeſſion requires; they commonly prefer making uſe of the Greeks, who diſplay, in this line as in every other, an intelligence and an activity of which the Turks are not capable. The Greeks manœuvre tolerably well, and conduct their little veſſels with much ſkill in the ſeas with which they are acquainted; but they have not the ſmalleſt theory of navigation: almoſt all of them navigate without a compaſs, ſteer only by the knowledge of the mountains and coaſts, bear up for every wind that blows ſomewhat ſtrong, and go and wait for fine weather in the neareſt port.

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The ſailors and ſoldiers of the navy were formerly called *levens* or *leventis:* they are at this day diſtinguiſhed by the name of *galiondgis:* the former are Turks of the maritime villages, or Greeks of the ARCHIPELAGO; they are permanent, conſtantly receive their pay, and are to embark at the firſt order. The galiondgis-ſoldiers are all Muſſulmans, and receive pay only when employed: after the ſhip is put out of commiſſion they obtain leave to retire into their own country, and to reſume their uſual occupations. The Greeks are employed in a ſhip of war only for working her; her defence being reſerved for the Muſſulmans. Prudence permits not the latter, in thoſe circumſtances, to give arms to men whom they oppreſs; they know, beſides, that the Greeks would be little diſpoſed to fight, and get themſelves killed for them.

When the exigencies of the State require it, recourſe is had to the merchant-ſervice, and, if it be neceſſary, a firman of the Grand Signior appears, by which it is enjoined to the primates of every iſland of the ARCHIPELAGO, to the governor of every maritime town of any conſequence, to ſend to CONSTANTINOPLE a certain number of ſailors. This is what we ſaw happen in the ſpring of the year VI. (1798), when the queſtion was to man three ſhips of the line, two caravels, three frigates, three corvettes, and fifteen gun-boats. Theſe laſt were intended for aſcending the DANUBE, and ſeconding the attack which the captain-pacha meditated by land againſt WIDIN, where PASWAN OGLOU was ſhut up. The caravels were to repair to ALEXANDRIA according to cuſtom; the ſhips, the frigates, and the corvettes were to go into the ARCHIPELAGO for the purpoſe of levying on the Greeks the annual impoſt to which they are ſubject.

The galiondgis-ſoldiers are very undiſciplined, very mutinous, and generally very licentious. Before their departure, they almoſt always give themſelves up to exceſſes which the government tolerates or dares not puniſh for fear

of

of diſpleaſing them all. The Jews, the Armenians, the Greeks, and even the Europeans are very circumſpect at this period: they avoid paſſing, even in broad day, into the quarters at all remote of PERA and GALATA, and they take care to return to their own habitations before dark. Notwithſtanding theſe precautions, a great number of perſons were ſtopped and robbed in GALATA in the year VI. (1798), and ſome even were killed. True it is that to this ſcourge was added that of the arrival of the troops who were aſſembling at CONSTANTINOPLE and ADRIANOPLE, in order to march againſt PASWAN OGLOU.

At PERA, there are ſeveral houſes where European ſailors, Greeks, and even Turks go to drink and intoxicate themſelves, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the government in this reſpect. Quarrels frequently happen among the ſea-faring people, which ſometimes terminate in the death of ſome of them. A little time after our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we were witneſſes of the aſſaſſination of a Greek, of the audacity of the galiondgi who killed him, and of the impunity which was the reſult.

A few Greeks, ſeated round a table, were drinking with each other, when a galiondgi whom they did not know, and who had juſt been drinking alone, called on them to pay for him: the latter refuſed; he inſiſted, and accompanied his demand by the epithets of *dogs*, *hogs*, and *infidels*, ſo familiar in the mouth of the Turks when they are ſpeaking to ſubjects not Muſſulmans. The anſwer was a ſecond time negative, but not abuſive; the galiondgi immediately drew his yatagan *, and threatened to kill theſe Greeks if they did not pay; on the third refuſal on their part, one of them received the mortal wound. The galiondgi, without fear as without remorſe, put on a reſolute air, kept the others and all the by-

* A ſabre a little crooked inwards, pointed and very ſharp, which the Turks wear at their girdle, and of which they make uſe in battle.

ſtanders

ſtanders in awe, by holding a piſtol in one hand, and his yatagan in the other. He quietly walked off, when the guard, armed only with ſticks, ran to ſeize hold of him. The galiondgi faced about, threatened to fire at the firſt who ſhould advance, made a running fight of it, wounded ſome of them, and reached the burying-grounds, which lie on a declivity to the weſt of PERA. Under cover of the cypreſs-trees, he arrived at the ſhipping, where he met with comrades who received him and favoured his eſcape.

A ſhip of war was, not long ſince, fitted up in ſuch a manner that each Turk had his birth and every thing that was neceſſary for his cooking and other arrangements. The between-decks were ſo encumbered, that frequently it was very difficult to make uſe of the great guns, and the Muſſulmans had conſtantly received ſeveral broadſides from the enemy, before they were in a condition to return them. The guns themſelves were of a different calibre, and they were ſerved without order or preparation: the ſhot which were brought for loading the cannon, were frequently either too large or too ſmall; which did not allow of defending a ſhip of the greateſt force againſt a ſingle frigate: but, within theſe few years, the Turks have introduced more order into their ſhips; the duty is carried on with much more intelligence, the between-decks are no longer ſo encumbered, and the artillery is better ſerved than it was before.

The captain-pacha, as we have already ſaid, is the High Admiral and the ſuperintendant-general of the navy; he uſually commands in perſon the fleets and all the naval forces of the empire; he nominates to all places, and employments; he orders the building and repairing of ſhips; but the *terſana-emini* is properly the naval miniſter, ſince he has the adminiſtration of the funds appropriated to the navy, the direction of the ſupply of ſtores to the arſenal, the care of the equipment of the ſhips, and the ſuperintendance of all the works; he has under him chiefs, deputies, and different harbour-

 maſters,

maſters, as well for the execution of his orders and for private ſuperintendance, as for the police.

The length of the harbour, from the point of the ſeraglio to the village of AIJUB, is upwards of three thouſand toiſes; its ſmalleſt width is about three hundred: it is reckoned upwards of five hundred in front of TOPHANA, and in front of the arſenal. The ſhips of war are ranged very near to each other along the arſenal. Merchant-veſſels commonly anchor along GALATA. Some of them come under SALYBASARI and FONDOCLI, waiting for the moment to get under ſail; becauſe they are afraid, in going out, that the ſtream may carry them on the point of the ſeraglio; but this precaution is generally uſeleſs: ſhips may effect their departure equally well from the place where they come to an anchor and from every part of the harbour, provided care be taken, if the wind hang to the northward, to keep on the ſide of TOPHANA, for were the wind to die away all at once, and a veſſel had got too near the point of the ſeraglio, ſhe would run a riſk of being driven againſt the rocks by which it is ſkirted, and of being daſhed to pieces. Ships of the line ſometimes, before they ſail, bring up in the middle of the harbour, but moſt frequently they anchor in the BOSPHORUS, from FONDOCLI as far as BECHIK-TACHE.

A ſhip may, with the greateſt facility, leave the harbour with every wind that commonly reigns in theſe countries. There is none but an eaſterly wind that is contrary; though, independently of that wind blowing very ſeldom at CONSTANTINOPLE, it is there but momentary: ſcarcely is it felt, before it ſhifts to the northward or ſouthward.

However, if it is eaſy to leave the harbour, a ſhip cannot ſtand for the ARCHIPELAGO but with a wind from the northern quarter, nor for the BLACK SEA, but with a ſoutherly wind. The poſition of the ſeas and the direction of the

the coaſts form and modify the winds in ſuch a manner that they blow almoſt always from thoſe two quarters: a breeze from the ſouth is much leſs frequent than the other, and ſcarcely ever blows during the three ſummer months of the year; on which account, it ſeldom happens that, in this ſeaſon, a veſſel is able to aſcend the HELLESPONT.

Although this harbour has no road properly ſo called, it nevertheleſs enjoys, more than any other, that advantage, ſince a whole fleet, however numerous, may anchor in ſafety in the BOSPHORUS, and there wait for the moment of departure: it might alſo anchor between the coaſt of ASIA and PRINCES' Iſlands, and even all along the city as far as ST. STEPHANO, if the wind were to the northward.

The poſition of this harbour is ſuch, that there is nothing to fear from the enterpriſes of an enemy's fleet; for it would be eaſy to prohibit the entrance of the BOSPHORUS and of the HELLESPONT, by fortifying thoſe two important paſſages. The PROPONTIS might ſerve for naval evolutions, and become a practical ſchool of navigation. This harbour has, beſides, the great advantage of being capable of containing a very conſiderable navy, as well on account of its extent, and of the facility which it affords of procuring every thing that is neceſſary for the building, the repairing, and the equipment of a great number of ſhips, as becauſe there might be had, in a little time, all the ſailors that would be wanted, from the quantity of harbours and maritime towns which lie near at hand, from the extent of the coaſts, and from the population of which theſe fertile and diverſified countries are ſuſceptible.

In ſhort, one of the inappreciable advantages of the harbour of CONSTANTINOPLE, is that it cannot be choked up, becauſe a part of the waters which come from the BLACK SEA, and which are driven back by the

advanced point of the ſeraglio, make the tour of the harbour, and ſweep away all the ordure and filth which the Turks never ceaſe to throw into it.

At the time of our departure, ſome Swediſh engineers were conſtructing a baſin in the arſenal, to ſerve for the repairing and even for the building of a ſhip of the greateſt force. The rock in which they were digging, was ſoft, ſchiſtoſe, and nevertheleſs ſo little ſuſceptible of infiltration, that the moſt ſimple pump was ſufficient for the removal of the water. From this, hopes may be entertained of increaſing the number of theſe baſins at no conſiderable expenſe; which would be of the greateſt utility to the navy of this country.

CHAPTER VI.

Excurſion to the environs of Pera.—*Tombs of the Armenians.*—*Trip to* Scutari.—*Deſcription of the burying-grounds.*—*Mountain of* Bourgourlou.—*Ceremonies of the howling derviſes.*

TILL the arrival of the envoy extraordinary of the Republic, our pecuniary means allowed us not to undertake diſtant excurſions: we were under the neceſſity of confining ourſelves to ſeeing the city and the adjacent country, and to viſiting, in ASIA, the environs of SCUTARI, and the land of the ancient CHALCEDON. Our firſt ſteps were directed to the burying-ground of PERA, a place for walking and recreation to ſome, a place for melancholy and meditation to others. You arrive there by the long ſtreet of PERA, and you find yourſelf on an elevated lawn, partly covered with graſs, occupied by the burying ground of the Armenians and by that of the Europeans: on one ſide is ſeen a cultivated field, and a little farther on, a thick foreſt of cypreſſes, a vaſt cemetery of the Muſſulmans. A company of boſtangees are there in a ſort of pavilion, to give, to thoſe who call for them, pipes and coffee. This place, melancholy, from the ſurrounding objects, is nevertheleſs infinitely agreeable from the various proſpects which preſent themſelves, from the landſcapes afforded by the coaſt of ASIA and the ſhores of the BOSPHORUS, from the view of the PROPONTIS and of a great part of CONSTANTINOPLE.

The graves of the Europeans are ſcattered over a ſpace ſomewhat conſiderable: the greater part of them are remarkable from a large ſepulchral ſtone, on which is engraved an inſcription more or leſs emphatical. For this purpoſe is employed a granite marble, whitiſh, and frequently veined with gray, which

which is drawn from the Iſland of MARMORA. The graves of the Turks, of which we ſhall preſently ſpeak, are concealed from view by a very thick foreſt of cypreſſes. Thoſe of the Armenians ſerve as a ſeat, and are ſhaded by different trees of an agreeable and diverſified aſpect: among others are to be remarked the mulberry-tree, the plane-tree, the aſh, the elm, and the walnut-tree.

The graves of the Armenians are very cloſe to each other, and are covered by a marble ſculptured in relief in its upper part, repreſenting a vaſe of flowers, the inſtrument which deſignates the rank and profeſſion of the deceaſed, and an inſcription in Armenian characters. A perſon muſt have died very poor if he have on his grave only a ſimple ſtone, without any ornament. Frequently is perceived, by the ſide of the inſcription, the figure of a man whoſe head is cut off; this is a method of perpetuating the remembrance of an injuſtice, of an act of tyranny on the part of the Turks, and of tranſmitting it to the moſt remote poſterity. I have often ſeen in the forenoon, Armenian women weeping and mourning over the grave of a huſband, over that of a father, a mother, or a child: the whole family ſometimes come thither: not unfrequently too prieſts come, with the parents of the deceaſed, to recite, over his grave, prayers for the repoſe and ſalvation of his ſoul. The Armenians, like the Turks, conſider it as a duty to waſh the body of their dead before they bury them, and almoſt all of them take care to plant, near the grave, a tree that may ſhade it one day, and moderate the ardent rays of the ſun.

From this beautiful ſite you deſcend rapidly, by different roads, into a narrow, fertile valley, where ſome Turks cultivate, with no great intelligence, the black mulberry-tree, a few fruit-trees, and ſeveral kitchen-garden plants, ſuch as the garden-bean, lettuce, chicory, *ſolanum melongena*, *hibiſcus eſculentus*, and various ſpecies of pumpkins. You leave at ſome diſtance, to the right, the

Turkiſh

Turkiſh cemeteries of which we haveſpoken; to the left, an uneven ground, often uncultivated: at the extremity of this valley you find, at a little diſtance from the ſea, a walk planted with old cypreſſes and a few elms, too far diſtant from the city to be frequented. Beyond this, are ſeen two palaces belonging to the ſultan, one of which ſituated on a height, is in a rather bad condition: the other, placed on the ſhore of the channel of the BLACK SEA, is kept up and taken care of: the latter has gardens tolerably extenſive, various edifices, and ſeveral kioſks or little pavilions ornamented and beautified externally. SELIM III. goes thither, it is ſaid, every year to ſpend a few days at the beginning of the ſummer; he takes with him his harem, ſome pages, and moſt of his officers.

We had already been ſeveral times on the coaſt of ASIA, and had thence brought back ſome plants and land-ſhells infinitely intereſting: we had viſited the extenſive burying-grounds of SCUTARI and examined the ſoil of CHALCEDON, when we reſolved, on the 15th of Prairial (3d of June) to go and aſſiſt at the religious ceremonies of the howling derviſes, and to aſcend the mountain of BOURGOURLOU, in order to enjoy fully the view of CONSTANTINOPLE. From the valley which I have juſt mentioned, we repaired to the ſea-port of *DALMABATCHE'* with ſome of our friends: we had taken with us two janizaries belonging to the French palace, in order that they might ſerve us as an eſcort and guides. This precaution is not abſolutely neceſſary in the environs of the capital, for it very ſeldom happens that, in ordinary times, ſeveral Europeans aſſembled are there inſulted by Turks; but it is proper and ſometimes even uſeful, becauſe a ſtranger is more reſpected, and more conſidered; beſides, he obtains what he wants with greater facility, and always at a more moderate price than when he is alone.

We embarked in caïques with three pairs of oars. The ſea was ſmooth, the weather very fine; ten minutes were ſufficient to tranſport us acroſs the channel,

channel, and land us at SCUTARI. This town, which may be considered as a suburb of CONSTANTINOPLE, is situated on the opposite bank of the channel, on a sloping ground: it presents itself in the form of an amphitheatre, and affords a view very picturesque from the mixture of trees, houses, mosques, and minarets. Its population is estimated at near sixty thousand souls. The greater number of the inhabitants of SCUTARI are Mussulmans: there are, however, many Greeks, a few Armenians, and a few Jews. This town serves as an emporium and a rendezvous to the caravans of ASIA: it carries on some trade inland, and likewise with CONSTANTINOPLE. Some manufactories of stuffs, both of silk, and of cotton, are there to be seen. The ground which surrounds it is tolerably well cultivated, and furnishes grain, vegetables, herbage, fruit, and particularly grapes which are kept during the whole winter and part of the spring.

At SCUTARI, there is one of the great mollas of the empire for the administration of justice. His jurisdiction embraces the part of the channel of the BLACK SEA on the side of ASIA, and extends several leagues inland. He has, under him, a naïb or lieutenant, and several registers. For the police, there is a guard-house of bostangees commmanded by a captain dependent on the bostangee-bachi, and a guard-house of janizaries commanded by an officer dependent on the janizary-aga of CONSTANTINOPLE.

The burying-grounds of SCUTARI are the handsomest of the Ottoman Empire, from their extent, the luxury of the tombs, and the height and closeness of the trees. The rich Turks of CONSTANTINOPLE, from a sentiment of pride or piety, prefer being buried in ASIA, which they consider as a holy land, as a land belonging to the true believers; while the land of EUROPE, according to them, is to fall one day into the hands of the christian powers, and be trodden on by the infidels. These burying-grounds are situated above

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the town, and extend to the eaſt and to the ſouth, towards the ſea, and to the environs of the ſpot formerly occupied by CHALCEDON.

Before we ſtrayed into this foreſt of cypreſſes, we viſited ſeveral ſtore-houſes of tomb-ſtones ready to be erected: we there found an aſſortment relating to the different profeſſions and employments of the Turks, and calculated at the ſame time to ſatisfy the taſte of every one: ſeveral workmen are employed in cutting the marble, in giving it various forms, in tracing on one of its faces, flowers, eulogiums, and ſentences taken from the Koran.

When you have penetrated into the foreſt, the image of the tombs, the ſight of a young widow ſhedding tears over the grave of her huſband, of a mother regretting the loſs of the deareſt of her children, of an old man who has ſeen the laſt branch of his family become extinct; the ſilence which reigns in theſe places conſecrated to death; the dark and uniform green of the cypreſs; the abſence of the ſun, whoſe rays cannot penetrate the thick foliage of the trees; the plaintive ſong of the turtles—every thing inclines man to meditation, and plunges him into a ſweet melancholy. A ſimilar place in EUROPE would be frequented by unhappy lovers, by unfortunate men, by thoſe to whom ſadneſs is a want, and tears are a relief.

The graves are very cloſe to each other, and very diverſified in their form. The poor Turks content themſelves with erecting, at the two extremities of the grave, a ſimple ſepulchral ſtone, without ornament and without inſcription. Moſt frequently there are two ſlabs of marble ſculptured and ornamented, one of which ſurmounted by a turban ſimilar to that which the man wore in his life-time, preſents an inſcription indicating the age and profeſſion of the deceaſed, and at the ſame time containing a panegyric or a ſentence taken from the Koran: the other piece of marble is ornamented with a cypreſs-tree in relief, or a vaſe of flowers; it alſo bears ſometimes a ſecond inſcription.

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The letters are always in relief, and painted in black or gilt. The graves of the women are diſtinguiſhable, from one of theſe ſlabs of marble, in lieu of preſenting a turban, being commonly terminated in the form of a muſhroom. Thoſe of the rich have the circumference of the grave in maſonry: ſome, ſimilar to an antique ſarcophagus, are raiſed about three feet, and compoſed of four pieces of marble, two flat ones of which form the ſides of the tomb; thoſe of the two extremities are ſurmounted by two pillars ſeven or eight feet high, on one of which is ſeen a long inſcription. The upper part of the ſarcophagus is without a lid, and leaves expoſed to view the earth which covers the body. Sometimes a ſpace containing one or ſeveral graves ſurrounded by a wall or paliſade. A cypreſs-tree is commonly planted at one of the extremities of every grave; which is the reaſon that, in theſe Turkiſh burying-grounds, thoſe trees are ſo numerous and ſo cloſe that they form a thick foreſt.

For the firſt years after the interment, the relations of the deceaſed come from time to time, or at fixed periods, to ſhed tears over the grave, to renew their regret, and ſpend the whole day in affliction. Some, more alive to their loſs, make it their duty to cultivate flowers there, to take care of the cypreſs-tree which they have planted, and thence to addreſs prayers to the Supreme Being.

We quitted theſe gloomy places in order to ſee images more cheerful. Half a league to the eaſtward of SCUTARI is the hill of BOURGOURLOU, whence the view extends afar, and ſpreads over the greateſt part of CONSTANTINOPLE. The road thither is tolerably good: we went into a little village from which we had ſeen a great number of perſons come, leading horſes loaded with pitchers. We learnt that Sultan SELIM and almoſt all the great men of the capital drank no other water than that of the ſpring of this village, becauſe it was conſidered as the moſt wholeſome and the lighteſt of all the waters

which reach CONSTANTINOPLE, or are to be found in the environs. We tafted it, and we faw that, in fact, it deferved, to a certain degree, the reputation which it enjoyed. The hill whence it iffues is fchiftofe, and has nothing remarkable but a light turf, and a clump of trees that fhades it, under which Turkifh women affemble to drink coffee, fmoke a pipe, and make a frugal repaft.

We for fome time enjoyed the enchanting fight which prefented itfelf to us: we could not fufficiently contemplate the majefty of thefe places; our eyes could not tire in alternately furveying the city and the harbour, the winding channel of the BLACK SEA, and the numerous villages fituated on its fhores, the Sea of MARMORA covered with iflands, and the ever-verdant fields of EUROPE and ASIA. But the fcene was to change: it was time to go and affift at the religious ceremonies of the dervifes, known under the name of *howlers*; to fee to what a pitch religious roguery fports with fools and blockheads, and by what means it fucceeds in making dupes. One would have fome difficulty in believing that men are capable of fo much folly, and friars of impoftures fo grofs, if the moft enlightened ftates of EUROPE had not themfelves afforded us fcenes as ridiculous, and full as difgufting.

In a fquare hall by no means fpacious, badly lighted, and in very indifferent condition, there was, for the men, a gallery raifed three or four feet, and above, a tribune for the women, faced with clofe lattice-work. On one of the fides was a fpace lower by a foot than the floor of the hall, where we were as in the pit of a theatre. The middle of the hall was occupied by about thirty friars of different ranks and profeffions, to judge of them from their turban. Some of them were dreffed as janizaries, others as tchocadars, fome as boftangees; feveral had the lengthened, and almoft cylindrical felt-cap of dervifes. The fuperiors of the order had their turban nearly fimilar to that

of the men of the law; ſeveral among them wore the green *ſeſſe*, like the emirs.

The ceremony began by ſome prayers, during which all the friars gave each other the kiſs of peace or fraternity. The novices, or thoſe who appeared to us of an inferior rank, ſimply kiſſed the hand of the ſuperior and of the chiefs of the order, with the greateſt reſpect. The latter were placed towards the wall, on a line a little curved; behind them were ſuſpended various iron inſtruments, fit for piercing the different parts of the body, and taking hold of burning coals in order to put them into the mouth or on the tongue; ſome were intended to be made red hot in the fire and to be afterwards applied, as we were told, to different parts of the body. Facing theſe chiefs, towards the middle of the hall, the derviſes were placed, on a curved line, in a humble poſture, kneeling, ſitting on their heels, according to the oriental cuſtom. After a few minutes ſpent in prayer, to theſe laſt was given a great tabor, in the inſide of which were one, two, or three ſtrings ſimilar to our thick violin or baſs ſtrings. One alone of theſe tabors had five or ſix little copper-wires. In front of theſe muſicians was placed a brazier, for the purpoſe of heating the inſtruments from time to time, and giving to the ſkin the ſuitable tenſion. The ſuperior beat time, and regulated the movement of the inſtruments with cymbals: two others ſtruck on two little kettle-drums. This muſic accompanied canticles in honour of MAHOMET, which all the friars ſang in uniſon.

During this monotonous and tireſome concert, we were from time to time electrified by the ſight of a friar who came and preſented himſelf to the ſuperior, as if ſtruck by the omnipotence of the Divinity: he fell by degrees into convulſions. his body then grew ſtiff, and appeared in the ſtate of one dead. He ſunk into the arms of the friars in waiting, who tried to reſtore him to life by touching his face, his dreſs, and principally his arms and thighs.

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With ſome, this was a ſimple ecſtaſy: the return to life was effected in a ſlow and gradual manner; with others, the ſtate of death appeared complete. The friars in waiting extended them on the floor, and made the greateſt efforts to reſtore them to life. Independently of touching them repeatedly, they ſpoke to them ſeveral times in their ear; and, when all common means were exhauſted, the chief approached in order to exerciſe his omnipotence. He ſpread his hand over the face of the dead perſon, who ſuddenly came to himſelf and got up with the greateſt nimbleneſs, aſſiſted by a derviſe in waiting. This ſight, preſented all the time that the ceremony laſted, became more frequent towards the end, during the howlings of theſe fanatics.

For half an hour the muſic had fatigued our ears, and the convulſionaries had afflicted our hearts, when two men, naked to the waiſt, came to occupy the ſcene for ſeven or eight minutes. They were each armed with two irons, upwards of a foot long, pointed at one of the extremities, and terminated at the other by a wooden ball covered all round with little chains, the laſt link of which was in the form of a very ſharp nail. Theſe men made different movements backward and forward with force and celerity, and appeared to thruſt the points of theſe two irons into their belly; but they took care every time to put their thumb on the points. However, the quickneſs of the motions, directed ſometimes on one ſide, ſometimes on the other, the noiſe and the play of the little chains—every thing prevented their cunning from being diſtinctly perceived. Theſe two men at length pretended to thruſt the inſtruments into their ears, their forehead, and their eyes; but then their precaution appeared greater, their motion was not ſo quick, and a derviſe ſuddenly wrapped them up in a cloak; he laid them on the floor, where they remained for ſome minutes like dead perſons. They then got up again at the ſame time rubbing their face and body with their hands, and they appeared as if reſuſcitated and cured of their wounds. They went and reſumed their place and their tabor.

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We were told that ſometimes the ceremony is more diverſified, that theſe fanatics put burning coals into their mouth, and that they apply their tongue to hot irons: we eaſily believed it, on ſeeing ſuſpended againſt the wall the inſtruments fit for executing ſimilar fooleries.

When this muſic ceaſed, almoſt all the derviſes placed themſelves in a circle and pronounced the word *Allah* (God), at the ſame time following the tone at firſt ſlow, then quick, which was given by two of them, who had placed themſelves in the middle, and who were, during this time, ſinging canticles in honour of MAHOMET and his deſcendants. The former ſhook their heads, ſometimes forward, ſometimes ſideways or circularly, with more or leſs rapidity, according to the ſong. At other times they toſſed about their body, ſometimes to the right, ſometimes to the left, and ſometimes backward and forward, till they had exhauſted themſelves with fatigue, and were quite bathed with ſweat. They took breath for a moment, and then began again, conſtantly pronouncing the word *Allah*, or only venting a cry ſimilar to that of *heh* or *hei*, which appeared to iſſue from the bottom of the ſtomach. The ſhort intervals which occurred between theſe howlings, were filled by the ſinging of the two friars who, as we have ſaid, were ſeated in the middle of theſe howlers. We remarked that there was among the chiefs more reſerve, more calmneſs, leſs diſpoſition to fanaticiſm; thoſe among them who from time to time mixed with the howlers, ſpared their lungs, and did not fatigue their body.

We came out of this hall with a head-ach and a general uneaſineſs occaſioned by the horrible clamour of theſe fanatics and the ſight of theſe diſagreeable ſcenes. We felt it neceſſary to take the air and give a turn to our thoughts: we directed our ſteps towards *KAVAGSERAÏ*, ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, half a league to the ſouth of SCUTARI; this is an imperial palace at preſent deſerted, built by AMURAT IV. Although it was very agreeably ſituated, had fine

fine gardens, and afforded a view of the PROPONTIS, of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the coafts of EUROPE and ASIA, yet the laft fultans have preferred their palaces on the channel, becaufe in fummer the current of air which comes regularly every day from the BLACK SEA, procures a coolnefs which is enjoyed much lefs at *KAVACSERAÏ*: befides, a place fo near to the cemeteries of SCUTARI was much more calculated for meditations than for recreation and pleafure.

Continuing our walk, we came to the ground formerly occupied by CHALCEDON, where we found nothing very interefting, except fome remains of walls and a little temple under ground, which appears to have been conftructed in the time of the perfecution of the chriftians. We fpent the remainder of the day near a fpring, in order to enjoy the coolnefs under the thick fhade of feveral plane-trees. Our caïque had been waiting for us there a long time; an intelligent Greek had prepared a large pilau and a few dainties for our janizaries and boatmen; and for us, a dinner which was feafoned by a good appetite, and enlivened by our reflections and by the charming fpot on which we were feated.

If the inhabitants of MEGARA, in founding, under the name of PROCERASTIS, a city at the fouth entrance of the BOSPHORUS, had the intention of making it an eftablifhment for trade, people have been in the right to give it from derifion the name of CHALCEDON or *CITY OF THE BLIND*, fince there exifted very near to that fpot a fituation which afforded the advantages of an immenfe and very fafe harbour; but, as a country-town, CHALCEDON enjoyed an extenfive and fertile territory, and a pofition infinitely agreeable: placed on a promontory facing the PROPONTIS, fheltered from the north winds, at a little diftance from PRINCES' Iflands, it is not furprifing that this town fhould become powerful, and that it fhould have rivalled BYSANTIUM, founded fome time after. CHALCEDON, befides, had two fmall harbours, whofe

jetties

jetties are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed, which muſt have been ſufficient for its trade and for its wants.

Pleaſed with our day's excurſion, we entered the caïque before ſun-ſet, in order to repair to the city. All this coaſt, elevated ſome toiſes above the level of the waters, was then covered with ſeveral plants and various ſpecies of broom in flower, which produced the moſt beautiful effect, and ſingularly ornamented the picture preſented to us by the cypreſſes of SCUTARI, and the nearest hills of ASIA. Here the ſea is never ſufficiently agitated to encroach on the coaſt for any great extent, and form a beach at all conſiderable. When the ſoil allows, vegetables grow and fructify at a little diſtance from the ſhore, without being incommoded by the waters.

CHAPTER VII.

Description of the environs of Constantinople.—*Excursion of the sultan.—Establishments of* Levens-schiflit.—*Powder-manufactory of* St. Stephano.—*Custom of the Orientals.*

CITIZEN DESCORCHES arrived at CONSTANTINOPLE on the 19th of Prairial year I (7th of June 1793); from what he told us he was ignorant of our mission: he had not, before his departure, received any instructions which related to us, and found not at the legation any letter or notice concerning our travels. We were a little surprised to see ourselves, as it were, abandoned, when FRANCE, strongly agitated internally, and externally attacked with vigour by a considerable number of enemies, could not permit the provisional government to cast their looks on us. Besides, the ministers who had sent us to the LEVANT were no longer in place, or were already no longer in existence.

Our mission, subordinate to events, had for a long time past changed its object: our political and commercial relations with the Ottoman PORTE were almost interrupted since the retreat of the provisional ruler, since, above all, the looks of the Government of FRANCE appeared to be fixed more particularly on the points threatened, and since the greater part of the rulers, guided by a blind and disastrous delirium, were unfortunately hurrying the nation into measures subversive of all industry and of all commerce. The fate of the French settled in the LEVANT depended on that of the mother-country: a few reverses more in EUROPE would have been sufficient for them all to see themselves in a moment involved in one general proscription: to

ſuch a degree did the PORTE then appear weak, and the enemies of FRANCE exacting.

Doubtful whether our travels would preſent the ſame degree of utility to thoſe who were, ſince our departure, inveſted with authority, and whether they would grant us the aſſiſtance which their predeceſſors had promiſed us, and with which we could no longer diſpenſe, we reſolved to return to our own country, or wait at CONSTANTINOPLE, according to the opinion of Citizen DESCORCHES, till the miniſter for foreign affairs had explained himſelf reſpecting us. And in order to derive, at all events, the greateſt advantage from our travels, we haſtened to gather all the knowledge which a ſtay of a few months might allow us; we attentively viſited the city and the environs, and directed our ſteps towards every place where we could make any intereſting diſcovery.

Although the ſoil of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE is every where very fit for the vine, for various ſpecies of corn, for the mulberry-tree, and for the different fruit-trees of our climates, ſcarcely any culture is there ſeen, except on the borders of the channel. The land is tolerably level in the weſt part of the city; it forms a few riſing grounds and ſome vaſt plains, on which an induſtrious and agricultural people would eaſily find an abundant and varied food: it is uneven and interſected by hills and vales in the northern part, that is to ſay, from the harbour to the BLACK SEA. Almoſt all this place is ſchiſtoſe; the vegetable ſtratum is more or leſs thick and of a tolerably good quality, eſpecially in the vallies and in the places where the ſoil is of any depth; but whether the miſchievous genius of deſpotiſm dries up every where the ſources of public proſperity, or whether the Turks are not fond of giving themſelves up to the culture of the land, and that, in imitation of their forefathers, they prefer the dangerous profeſſion of arms, robbery, or traffic, it is certain that, in all the Ottoman Empire, part of the beſt lands are neglected,

neglected, and that it is the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Arabs who apply themſelves more particularly to agriculture, when they are not too much oppreſſed by the agents of the government, or tormented by pillaging and devaſtating hordes that the pachas tolerate or cannot repreſs.

Within theſe few years, ſome Greeks of EPIRUS and of DALMATIA have ſown with ſucceſs a few waſte lands in the environs of the capital, and have there made ſufficiently plentiful harveſts; their example will be imitated, no doubt, if the government do not throw any obſtacles in the way, if it can be convinced that a land covered with rich crops, productive trees, and uſeful plants is the moſt beautiful ornament of the environs of a city and the moſt flattering panegyric of the ſovereign.

On going out by the elevated ſuburb of PERA, you find an uneven, ſchiſtoſe ſoil, little cultivated: to the left you ſee a narrow, deep valley, extremely fertile, in which are reared different kitchen-garden plants. Beyond this valley you perceive alſo, on an elevated ground, the village of ST. DIMITRI, which may be conſidered as one of the ſuburbs of the capital. The environs of this Greek village preſent a few vineyards and gardens. After having paſſed a ſecond valley, you ſoon arrive on a level ſpot, uncultivated, and tolerably ſpacious, called *OK-MEÏDAN*, to which the ſultan repairs ſometimes in ſummer, accompanied by the principal officers of his houſehold and a part of his pages. He there ſpends the day in a beautiful kioſk or under magnificent tents, and ſometimes amuſes himſelf in letting off two or three arrows.

Skilful flatterers, ever active about the man in power, have not failed to find that every arrow ſhot from the hand of the ſovereign reached to a prodigious diſtance, and, in order to eternize the remembrance of it, have been

eager to erect, every time that the ſultan has taken this diverſion, a marble pillar on which is engraved in relief a long inſcription.

The pages who exerciſe themſelves after him, would take good care not to diſplay all their ſtrength and all their ſkill, if they were not certain that the mark which has juſt been hit, in appearance, by the ſultan, has been placed out of the reach of their arrows.

Theſe pages then perform a mock-fight on horſeback with the lance, very much uſed among all the Orientals; it conſiſts in throwing on a gallop, with the arm raiſed, that weapon with the greateſt force, and hitting with its point one's adverſary at a ſomewhat great diſtance. And whether he have miſſed his aim or ſtruck his enemy, the Turkiſh, Arabic or Perſian warrior, in order not to remain unarmed or be ſtruck in his turn, muſt again recover his weapon going on at the ſame time, without ſetting his foot to the ground. In the mock-fight, they make uſe of a ſtick called *djerid*, taken from light wood, ſuch as the willow or the date-tree; for, without this precaution, ſerious accidents would frequently happen: a perſon might be dangerouſly wounded if the djerid were of a hard and heavy wood.

In every part of the Ottoman Empire, we were ſeveral times witneſſes of the dexterity which the Orientals diſplay in this combat, and of the nimbleneſs with which, while on a gallop, they recover their djerid, often at the firſt attempt. This fight, much more frequent among the Arabs than among the Turks and the Perſians, can take place only between an inconſiderable number of combatants, and among nations which make much more uſe of the lance than of fire-arms.

In following the road of Belgrade and of Buyuk-déré, you ſee ſome uncultivated lands, a few ſcattered vineyards, and ſome fields laid down in

corn.

corn. After a journey, on foot, of an hour and a half, you arrive at a fort of farm, called *Levens-Schiflit*, adorned with ſome gardens tolerably picturesque, and ſome rather extenſive buildings kept in very good order. Hassan, captain-pacha, to whom ſultan Abdul Hamid had given it as an appanage, had made of it a place of recreation, and had there placed a guard of *levens* or marines, in order to repreſs pillage, and prevent the robberies which were then committed on this road, and even under the walls of the city.

What is at this day ſeen moſt intereſting at Levens-schiflit, is a manufactory of muſkets and bayonets in the European ſtyle, eſtabliſhed at the commencement of Selim's reign, by a Spaniſh engineer: it was neglected and almoſt abandoned a little time after its eſtabliſhment; but it has reſumed its activity ſince Selim, the captain-pacha, and ſome members of the council, finding the ſuperiority of our weapons and the advantage of our tactics, reſolved to introduce them by degrees into the Ottoman armies.

A part of theſe buildings is occupied, at this moment, by a corps of infantry of twelve hundred boſtangees paid and exerciſed in the European manner, by another corps of about four thouſand gunners, bombardiers, and matroſſes, and by a company of horſe-artillery; but it appears that there had alſo been an intention of lodging there cavalry, to judge from the extent of the ſtables and buildings which were erected at the time that the Grand Signior and the greater part of the members of the Divan were likewiſe taken up with the creation of a ſtanding army, organized in imitation of that of the European powers.

Notwithſtanding the mutiny, the threats, and the revolt of the janizaries; notwithſtanding the reſiſtance of the other corps of troops and the oppoſition of the whole nation, which repels with obſtinacy the cuſtoms that have been

been tranſmitted to it by other nations, it is not to be doubted that SELIM would have ſucceeded in his projects, and have ſurmounted all the obſtacles which the intereſt of ſome, and the ignorance and fanaticiſm of all oppoſed to him, if a man no leſs extraordinary than enterpriſing, if PASWAN OGLOU had not found, in his genius and in the pecuniary aſſiſtance of thoſe whom the ſucceſs of his projects might counteract, the means of paralyzing the great meaſures of the PORTE, the only ones capable perhaps of ſtrengthening the authority of the ſovereign, of preventing the revolts of the pachas, of relieving the people, and of protracting the fall of this vaſt empire.

I ſhall, on another occaſion, make known that man who is moved by hidden ſprings, and whom policy makes uſe of whenever it has need of him.

After having paſſed LEVENS-SCHIFLIT, you proceed, by various roads, to BELGRADE, to TARAPIA, and to BUYUK-DÉRÉ, villages which the European ambaſſadors have ſucceſſively inhabited in the ſummer. To the weſtward and northward of the firſt, are ſome ancient foreſts, the abode of wild boars, ſtags, roe-bucks, jackals, and of ſeveral birds of prey. The *ſmilax excelſa** climbs up to the top of the moſt of theſe trees, and envelops them with its branches and foliage.

If you then direct your ſteps to the oppoſite ſide, to the weſt part of the city, for example, where the level grounds and the extremely fertile lands ſeem to invite man to conceal himſelf from the intrigues, the noiſe, and the tumult of cities, in order to ſeek in the fields, under a cool ſhade, in the middle of an orchard, plenty, peace, and happineſs, you will be ſurpriſed, no doubt, to find theſe lands ſo little cultivated, equally neglected as the others, and to ſee them ſeldom covered with rich harveſts. We were ſtruck, the firſt time that we directed our ſteps towards theſe places, at the terrible effect which deſ-

* Lofty-climbing oriental bindweed.—*T.*

potiſm

potiſm produces on agriculture in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE. The ſilence which reigns every where, the nakedneſs of the fields, the culture of the lands extremely neglected, and the total abandonment of ſome, beſpeak rather a devaſtated country, or the ſteril borders of a province diſtant from the roads, the ports and towns of conſumption, than the approaches of the capital of a great empire.

On a vaſt extent of ground which you traverſe in the environs of the roads of ADRIANOPLE and of RODOSTO, or on the road of ST. STEPHANO, you meet with only three or four farms, the appanage of ſome eminent place or poſſeſſed for ever by ſome imperial moſque.

In following the road the neareſt to the ſea-ſhore, you arrive, after two hours' walk, at St. STEPHANO, a Greek village, where the Grand Signior has, within theſe few years, eſtabliſhed a manufactory of gun-powder, the direction of which he has intruſted to an Italian. The ignorance of the Turks, in regard to the manufacture of powder, has always been ſuch, that they for a long time purchaſed that commodity of the Venetians, and have not yet ſucceeded in giving it that degree of perfection which it obtains among us. The powder manufactured in TURKEY is ſcarcely fit for ſhooting, and eſpecially for the priming of a muſket or a piſtol. The ſhip-captains who frequent the LEVANT, almoſt all make it an article of merchandiſe extremely advantageous, becauſe the Turks ſeek, for their piſtols and carbines, the fine powder of EUROPE, and becauſe the Europeans who amuſe themſelves in ſhooting, cannot diſpenſe with it.

The environs of ST. STEPHANO are excellent for quail-ſhooting, from the end of Fructidor to the end of Vendemiaire. Ducks and teals are alſo to be found during the winter, on the banks of the lake known under the Italian

name

name of *Ponte Piccolo* *, which lies beyond the village. This lake is extremely full of fish; I have several times seen monstrous carp that had been caught there; they weighed from fifty to eighty pounds, and were three or four feet long.

It was on the 22d of Prairial (10th of June) that we went, on foot, to St. Stephano, walking across fields covered with thistles, grasses, and plants of every species which delayed our progress, and fatigued us greatly. We hoped to return the same day by sea, in order to examine the shore; but as it was already late when we left the manufactory, it was impossible for us to find a boat, so that, tired as we were, we were obliged to determine on making a frugal repast at the house of a Greek papas, and pass the night on a sopha, exposed to fleas and bugs, extremely numerous throughout the Levant.

The Orientals, more simple than ourselves in their household furniture, are not acquainted with the luxury of beds. They have in their houses a certain number of very light mattresses, of wool or cotton, which they spread on the floor or on the sophas at bed-time, and on which they pass the night. The women take off their trinkets, and lay aside their finery; the men strip themselves of their habit of ceremony, change their turban, and lie down in their clothes, as well as the women. They cover themselves with quilted coverlids, to which the rich add a cotton sheet, which they commonly do not change till it is very dirty, or almost worn out.

The next morning these mattresses and coverlids are taken away; they are shut up in closets, and the bed-chamber again becomes the drawing-room and

* Or the little bridge; and in Turkish, *Koutchouk-tchesmé*. The lake has taken the name of the bridge established on the narrow part which communicates with the sea. A few leagues from this spot, is another lake, called, for the same reason, *Ponte grande* or *Buyuk-tchesmé*.

eating-

eating-parlour. Among the poor Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, the whole family almoſt always ſleep in the ſame room; but, among the Muſſulmans, the apartment of the men is always ſeparate from that of the women.

As the uſe of chairs and tables is equally unknown to the Orientals, ſophas are the principal and almoſt the only articles of furniture of their apartments: theſe are generally put on three ſides of the room, on that of the windows and on two of the other ſides: they are immediately placed on the floor, or raiſed a few inches, half a foot and even a foot, by means of a little eminence formed of ſome planks. They are covered with beautiful printed callicoes, ſtuffs of ſilk, velvet, or cloth, and ornamented with cotton, ſilk, ſilver, or gold fringe. There are large cuſhions for the back, throughout the length of the ſopha, trimmed with fringe and covered with the ſame ſtuffs; carpets and mats are placed in the middle of the room. There remains a part of the floor, oppoſite to the entrance-door, which is lower by five or ſix inches, and which ſerves as a paſſage for going to the lateral chambers.

The ſopha ſerves as a ſeat during the day, and as a bed during the night: there it is that the Orientals paſs the day, ſquatted, with their legs croſſed, and that, at night, they place their mattreſſes for ſleeping. Frequently, in order not to wear the ſopha too much, they remain on the carpet or on the mat, and, at night, for want of other mattreſſes, they ſleep on the ſopha, after having taken off the cover by which it is ornamented.

It may be conceived that this manner of living on the floor, on carpets or mats which cannot be ſwept, and which are neglected to be beaten or ſhaken, in wooden houſes, in a hot climate, among a people who are ſcarcely acquainted with the uſe of linen, who keep on their garments during the night, and do not take them off in general till they are worn out, fleas, bugs, and all

the vermin which adhere to the dirty and negligent man, muſt be extremely numerous; this too was what made us ſuffer moſt in the courſe of our travels, becauſe it was impoſſible for us to ſecure ourſelves againſt thoſe inſects when we were obliged to lie down in a place which was infeſted by them.

It was not enough for the fleas and bugs to prevent us from ſleeping; we were, beſides, lighted by a lamp which was burning before the image of the virgin, as is the practice night and day in all the Greek houſes of the LEVANT. We durſt not extinguiſh it: we ſhould have afflicted too much the worthy prieſt at whoſe houſe we had ſtopped, and who had received us with the greateſt politeneſs.

We had obſerved, in going to ST. STEPHANO, the double ditch and the double wall which ſecure CONSTANTINOPLE by land, and which have been ſo well preſerved, notwithſtanding the various attacks which that city has experienced: we wiſhed, on our return, to take a look at the wall which formerly defended it by ſea, from one extremity to the other, and which extended all along the harbour as far as the environs of *AIJUP*. We embarked the next morning in a caïque, and, in an hour and a half, we were before the little circular fort, known by the name of the *SEVEN TOWERS*, ſituated at the ſouthern extremity of the city. It is nothing more at the preſent day but a State priſon, in which the ambaſſadors and agents of foreign powers are ſhut up when the Turks are at war with them.

The walls which are afterwards ſeen, are partly deſtroyed. Here are to be remarked various inſcriptions which indicate the period of the works which the Greek emperors erected. Here are likewiſe to be ſeen pieces of pillars which the Turks employed when they repaired the breaches occaſioned by the ſiege that they carried on before they made themſelves maſters of the city.

We

We ſoon arrived at the gate of *DAOUD-PACHA*, near which is the ancient harbour of THEODOSIUS or of ELEUTHER. We ſtopped further on at *CATIRGA-LIMANI*, or the galley-harbour, conſtructed by JULIAN, repaired by MAHOMET II, at this day choked up, and, in a great meaſure, transformed, as well as the other, into kitchen-gardens.

Theſe two harbours, uſeleſs to the navy, would, nevertheleſs, be deepened and kept up by a nation more enlightened than that of the Turks, becauſe they would facilitate the conveyance of proviſions and merchandiſe into every quarter of this great city, whoſe uneven and hilly ground ſcarcely permits the uſe of carts.

We rowed upwards of an hour along the walls of the city before we arrived off the ſeraglio. Here, cypreſſes, pines, and plane-trees riſe above the outer wall; farther on, various irregular buildings, ſeveral domes and minarets of moſques are to be remarked in this vaſt encloſure which was occupied by the ancient BYZANTIUM; by the ſea-ſide are ſeen a few kioſks, whither the ſultan repairs ſometimes to enjoy a view of the PROPONTIS, and breathe the cool air which comes every day, in ſummer, from the BLACK SEA.

Having arrived at the point of the ſeraglio, we paſſed the harbour, leaving it on the left, and SCUTARI on the right; then we diſembarked at the landing-place of TOP-HANA, ſituated to the eaſt of GALATA.

CHAPTER VIII.

Defcription of the Bofphorus *and of its environs.—Arrival at* Buyuk-déré.—*Of the plane-tree which is there met with.—Indications of a volcano at the mouth of the* Black Sea.

On the 25th of Prairial (13th of June) we refolved to go and take up our refidence at Buyuk-déré, a village fituated in Europe, near five leagues from Constantinople, towards the mouth of the channel, in order to be better enabled to vifit to a fomewhat confiderable diftance from the city, the fields of Europe and of Asia, to repair with greater facility to the fhores of the Black Sea, and to avail ourfelves of the feafon favourable for obfervations, refearches, and the collecting of moft of the articles of natural hiftory. The fpring-plants had already done flowering, and no longer afforded any thing but feeds; thofe of fummer were going to flower, and gave us hopes of an abundant harveft. On our return from Egypt in Thermidor and Fructidor year III. we had collected a few late plants and a great many feeds; and, on returning from Persia in the year VI. (1798) we had not quitted Constantinople without gathering the fpring-plants.

We went to embark at Top-hana on board a caïque with three pairs of oars: it was neceffary to pafs through a multitude of fnarling dogs which fatigue Europeans by their barking, and of which a perfon ought to be on his guard, becaufe they fometimes revenge themfelves unawares for the blows which they, from time to time, receive from the failors. The fquare which leads to the fteps where you embark, is large, irregular, planted with fome beautiful plane-trees, and adorned with a fountain conftructed within thefe few years by a captain-pacha. It is furmounted by a broad, wooden frame, on which

which are crowded ornaments, gilding, ſentences, and inſcriptions. At this period workmen were employed in building in the park of artillery, ſituated on the ſide of the ſquare, a triple row of barracks which are diſpoſed in the figure of an amphitheatre, and have a tolerably handſome effect. In the ſquare were lying heaps of corn and fruit, on which turtles and ſparrows in great numbers were gorging themſelves without being in fear of the paſſengers or the maſter of theſe commodities.

The Turks have, in this reſpect, the greateſt indifference: they neither allow themſelves to kill theſe birds nor to drive them away: ſome even would think themſelves very happy in providing for their maintenance. "*Muſt not theſe in-* "*nocent creatures,*" ſay they, "*find their ſubſiſtence? If it pleaſe God, we* "*ſhall next year have a more abundant harveſt.*" Some among them build, in various parts of their houſes, neſts not without a degree of beauty, and take good care not to diſturb the loves of theſe birds, ſtill leſs to deſtroy their young. Theſe religious ſentiments form a ſingular contraſt with the unjuſt and oppreſſive conduct which they hold towards the chriſtians who reſide among them and whom they have unmercifully ſtripped, and by no means agree with that inſatiable cupidity which characteriſes the Turkiſh nation, and of which I ſhall frequently have occaſion to ſpeak.

On receding from the water-ſide, the eye extends with pleaſure over the ſuburbs of GALATA, TOP-HANA, PERA, SALYBASARI, and FONDOCLI, which you leave on the left, and which preſents itſelf in the form of an amphitheatre. You preſently arrive in front of the ſeraglio of BECHIK-TACHE, of which I have already ſpoken. You then ſee the village of that name, together with thoſe of ORTA-KEUI, KOUROU-TCHESMÉ, and ARNAOUD-KEUI; but all this ſpace forms, properly ſpeaking, only one contiguous village, where are ſeen ſome very handſome houſes almoſt entirely built of wood and variouſly painted: thoſe belonging to the Turks are in white or red; thoſe of the

Greeks,

Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are of a blackiſh brown. The latter are not allowed to employ the colours of the Muſſulmans: in TURKEY, the houſes, like the garments, diſtinguiſh the maſter from the ſlave.

The ground forms, all along the channel, a chain of ſchiſtoſe hills, very fertile, covered with cypreſſes, oaks, lime-trees, cheſnut-trees, arbutuſes, myrtles, brooms, and vines, which preſent an infinitely agreeable aſpect. Theſe hills are interrupted by ſome vallies of the greateſt fertility, which contribute to vary and embelliſh the picture. Gardens more or leſs ſpacious, adorned with flowers and kioſks diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as to receive the current of air, and afford at a diſtance a view of the channel, make theſe houſes places of enjoyment and delight. Moſt of the rich inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE here paſs in ſummer the whole day, alone, ſquatted on a ſopha, employed in ſmoking, drinking coffee, caſting their eyes on paſſengers, and rolling in their fingers chaplets of coral, agate, and precious ſtones.

We landed, near the caſtle of EUROPE, in order to examine ſome plants and flowers which ſtruck us. We entered into a Turkiſh burying-ground planted with beautiful cypreſſes and a few turpentine-trees: we found among others, a beautiful ſpecies of fennel-giant five or ſix feet high, different from the narrow-leaved fennel giant, and ſeveral ſpecies of campanula; we ſaw the beautiful violet, rough carabus, which I have deſcribed and drawn in my *Entomologie* *. After having ſpent ſeveral hours on ſhore, we returned to our caïque; we ſoon paſſed ROUMILI-HISSAR, ſituated on a ſloping ground. This caſtle, built under CONSTANTINE PALEOLOGUS, laſt emperor of the EAST, by MAHOMET II, when he was meditating the conqueſt of CONSTANTINOPLE, is much more calculated at this day to ſerve as a ſcare-crow, than to oppoſe the paſſage of a ſhip of the line. In fact, a ſingle frigate would ſoon

* *Entom.* ou *Hiſt. Nat. des Inſectes.* Vol. III. *Carabe.* N° 7. pl. viii. fig. 83.

knock to pieces all the gun-carriages and dismount the guns which are exposed to view on the beach, and put to flight the gunners, whom nothing shelters. This is the case with the castle of ASIA which lies on the other side of the channel: its construction is no better, and cannot defend the approaches of the capital.

In this place it was that DARIUS, king of PERSIA, established a bridge of boats in order to carry over his army when he wished to make war against the Scythians. By this place too it was that the crusaders, animated by a holy zeal, entered ASIA, in order to deliver the Holy Land from the yoke of the Mahometans.

We followed the coast of EUROPE, because the waters which come from the BLACK SEA, form a current more rapid in the middle of the channel and towards the coast of ASIA. The caïques which are ascending, all follow the same route, whereas, in returning to CONSTANTINOPLE, mariners take care to keep in the middle of the channel, and even to approach the coast of ASIA a little more than that of EUROPE; which facilitates their return, especially if a light northerly wind allow them to spread their sails.

If we consider the quantity of water which the BLACK SEA receives from the DANUBE, the DNIESTER, the DNIEPER, and the DON, as well as from a great number of rivers and torrents which descend from Mount CAUCASUS and the hills of MINGRELIA, or which come from GEORGIA, ARMENIA, and NATOLIA, we shall perceive that, confined in a basin too narrow, these waters would have been obliged to spread themselves more in order to provide for a greater evaporation and put themselves in equilibrio, had they not found an issue through the BOSPHORUS and the channel of the DARDANELLES. It is by this means that the surplus of the waters of that sea is incessantly flowing out, and is poured into the MEDITERRANEAN: and this is

what

what explains to us why the waters of the BLACK SEA and thofe of the PROPONTIS are lefs falt than thofe of the MEDITERRANEAN and of the OCEAN.

The current is fo ftrong, that the channel, in fome places, rather refembles a river than an arm of the fea: it is feen to oppofe the progrefs of a fhip when the fouth wind blows but faintly. The direction of the coafts compels the waters to fet more towards thofe of ASIA, and to form on that fide a more rapid current; however, at the point of ARNAOUD-KEUI, one is obliged to afcend by tracking, by means of a rope which is thrown to fome failors who remain continually on the fhore. The waters, in this part, have fuch a rapidity, that it would be impoffible to proceed by rowing without going to a diftance from the land: but when this obftacle is overcome, the current is fcarcely any longer perceptible, and even, in various places, the direction of the capes caufes the waters to afcend, as in rivers; which favours the progrefs of a boat, as is to be remarked, in a very evident manner, from TOP-HANA to beyond FONDOCLI, becaufe the waters, fetting with impetuofity on the advanced point of the feraglio of CONSTANTINOPLE, they there divide: one part of them makes the tour of the harbour, returns along HASKEUI, the Arfenal, GALATA, TOP-HANA, and afcends afterwards to FONDOCLI and BECHIK-TACHE, while the other fets immediately into the Sea of MARMORA. This feparation of the waters, as well as their direction, is much more apparent after a heavy rain, when they are difturbed by the fmall river which difcharges itfelf into the head of the harbour.

This circular motion of the waters of the channel, united to that of the fmall river of which I have juft fpoken, rids the harbour of CONSTANTINOPLE, as I have faid elfewhere, of the ordures which the Turks throw into it, and at the fame time fweeps away all the filth which the rain-waters carry into it in winter from every part of the city, and which would not fail to

choke

choke it up one day, becauſe the Turks, by no means ſuſceptible of foreſight, would be at no expenſe for keeping it in order.

For a long time we ſaw flocks of birds paſſing and repaſſing continually towards the middle of the channel, ſkimming the ſurface of the water and flying with the greateſt ſwiftneſs. The Europeans deſignate them by the name of *damned ſouls*, becauſe they think that they ſee in them reſtleſs beings, tormented by the wiſh of proceeding inceſſantly from the BLACK SEA into the MEDITERRANEAN, and from the latter into the former. As ſoon as we had paſſed the firſt caſtle, we directed our boatmen to recede from the coaſt, and advance towards the middle of the channel. Our intention was to ſhoot at theſe birds, in order to aſcertain their ſpecies, and to preſerve ſome of them. We ſoon came up to them: they paſſed ſufficiently near the caïque in which we were, to permit us to kill ſeveral at every ſhot. The boatmen were Turks: they at firſt rowed without repugnance towards the birds which the firſt diſcharge of our pieces had brought down; but, becauſe we would not allow them to cut their throat, which would have damaged the plumage, we had the greateſt difficulty to make them row afterwards toward thoſe which a ſecond diſcharge had alſo brought down; ſo that, ſoon participating ourſelves in the compaſſion with which the ſight of theſe birds ſtruggling with death muſt inſpire all, we very quickly ſmothered them and contented ourſelves with taking four of them. We wrapped them up in a cloth in order to conceal them from the ſight of our boatmen, and to preſerve their plumage; after which we again directed our route towards the coaſt of EUROPE.

The Muſſulmans, from a ſentiment of piety or religion, are in the habit of cutting the throat or chopping off the head of all the animals which they bring down by a muſket-ſhot or otherwiſe, even when they are quite dead. This cuſtom is ſo generally and ſo religiouſly obſerved, that, in the different coun-

tries which we viſited, we were ſeldom able to obtain even for any money, that the throat of the birds which were brought to us ſhould not be cut; and when we were preſent, it was frequently very difficult for us to prevent it.

The bird that we had juſt taken is a ſlight variety of the petrel-puffin *. It differs from it by its make being a little ſmaller and by the bill being entirely black. By the account of ſeamen, it makes its neſt on the ſhores of the Black Sea, and ſcarcely lives on any thing but fiſh. Its fleſh is not good to be eaten.

We ſoon reached the point of Yeni-keui, whence we had a charming view of Tarapia and Buyuk-déré. Having arrived off Tarapia, our eyes were directed with pleaſure towards the Black Sea, which we diſcovered at the diſtance of upwards of two leagues: our imagination was already meaſuring its extent; we were already impatient to viſit its ſhore; and, like new Argonauts, we were already forming the project of carrying off from theſe regions all the productions of nature, in order to convey them into our own country. Circumſtances, as will be ſeen, ſomewhat counteracted our projects, and forced us to direct our firſt ſteps into countries better known, more frequented, but no leſs intereſting.

We arrived at an early hour at Buyuk-déré: it was a holiday. In the evening, we wiſhed to take a walk in the meadow, and ſee the famous plane-tree which had long ſince been mentioned to us, and of which ſome travellers have given a ſlight deſcription. Seven or eight trees of an enormous ſize, adhering at their baſe, riſe circularly and leave in the middle a rather conſiderable ſpace. A great many Greeks and Armenians were ſeated on the turf, under the ſhade of theſe trees, and ſmoking their pipes: different

* *Procellaria puffinus.*

groups

groups of Turkiſh and Armenian women, veiled and ſurrounded by their children, were ſeated apart: ſome Greek women richly dreſſed, more or leſs handſome, fixed the looks and the attention of ſome Europeans whom the crowd of people had attracted. Several Turks were in the encloſure of the plane-tree, ſmoking their pipe, and drinking coffee which had juſt been prepared for them hard by.

The moment was not favourable for the obſervations which we wiſhed to make; however, we approached the tree, and when we were by the ſide of the Turks they invited us to ſit down near them: they offered us pipes and coffee which we accepted, and, by means of a French drogueman who accompanied us, we carried on a converſation not very important. We had an opportunity of ſeeing at our hotel two of theſe Turks, and of offering them, in our turn, an excellent dinner and the beſt wine that is drunk in CONSTANTINOPLE.

The plane-tree often preſents at its baſe a conſiderable expanſion of a diameter double and triple that of the trunk, and which may exceed thirty feet, as we have ſeen in ſome places, ſo that it frequently happens, when the tree dies of age, that it ſends forth all round the ſtump, ſhoots which form ſo many new trees; this, no doubt, is what has happened to the plane-tree of BUYUK-DÉRÉ. We remarked, indeed, that the ſeven or eight trunks of which it is formed, appear to have a common origin, and that they are all connected by their baſe.

The plane tree grows naturally throughout the EAST: it is common on the banks of the rivulets in GREECE, in the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the coaſt of ASIA MINOR, in SYRIA, and in PERSIA. Its wood is not inferior, for cabinet-work, to any wood of EUROPE; it takes a beautiful poliſh, and is very agreeably veined. The Perſians employ no other

 for

for their furniture, their doors, and their windows. This tree deſerves to be more generally cultivated in FRANCE, as well on account of the qualities of its wood, as from the beauty of its foliage and the cool ſhade which it affords. It acquires, in a good ſoil a little moiſt, a ſize at which no European tree arrives.

It is well known that the Romans conveyed this tree into ITALY, and that they propagated the culture of it to ſuch a degree in their gardens and country-houſes, that PLINY and HORACE exclaimed againſt the abuſe which was made of it in their time. It was then difficult to make a better choice, and to procure a tree more beautiful and better calculated for affording a cool ſhade. There was, according to PLINY, a plane tree, in CYPRUS, and another at the fountain of GORTYNA in CRETE, which preſerved their leaves all the year. We muſt, doubtleſs, place this aſſertion among the fables which antiquity has tranſmitted to us, or at leaſt conſider theſe trees as different from common plane-trees.

BUYUK-DÉRÉ or the *GREAT VALLEY*, is a village ſituated in the broadeſt part of the channel, on a ſort of gulf, about ſix miles from the BLACK SEA. The houſes ſtand on the ſea-ſhore, and occupy near a mile in extent: thoſe belonging to moſt of the ambaſſadors, built in the European taſte, are remarkable for their elegance and the beauty of their gardens. As this village is ſcarcely occupied except by Europeans, Greeks, and Armenians, it would be an infinitely agreeable place of reſidence, if the ambaſſadors would bring themſelves to lay aſide, eſpecially in the country, the ceremony, etiquette, and preferences which accompany them every where. The man who is fond of good living, and who is not in a condition to procure it for himſelf at his own home, finds at their table the reward of his complaiſance and the indemnification of the incivilities which he is often obliged to put up with.

The

The Armenian women, here as elſewhere, live retired, and do not appear in the ſtreets unveiled; the Greek women live with as little conſtraint as in the capital, and contribute to render the monotony of ſociety ſupportable. It were to be wiſhed, however, that they joined, to a face generally handſome and to their natural gaiety, a mind more cultivated, a heart more loving, and that they ſhewed leſs avidity for money and leſs taſte for trifles.

The channel anciently known under the name of the *Bosphorus of Thrace*, is near ſeven leagues long, and about twenty miles from the point of the ſeraglio of Constantinople to the Cyanean Iſlands. It is not two miles in its greateſt width, and it is ſo narrow in ſeveral places, that ſome ancient authors have advanced that a perſon may hear the birds ſing from the one ſhore to the other, and that two men may eaſily hold a converſation acroſs the channel.

The next day after our arrival at Buyuk-déré, the weather being very fine, and the water perfectly ſmooth, we haſtened to go on the Black Sea, in order to viſit the ſhore at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the channel. We frequently landed, as well to examine the coaſt, as to obſerve the plants and the various productions of nature that were there to be met with.

As ſoon as we had paſſed the village, we were ſtruck at ſeeing on both ſhores, indications of a volcano which we followed for an extent of ſeveral leagues. We diſtinguiſhed every where rocks more or leſs changed or decompoſed; every where accumulation and confuſion atteſt the action of ſubterraneous fires: we perceived jaſpers of various colours, carnelians, agates, and chalcedonies in veins among porphyries more or leſs changed; a breach by no means ſolid, almoſt decompoſed, formed by fragments of trap, agglutinated by calcareous ſpar; a handſome porphyry on a rocky baſe of greeniſh trap, coloured by copper: in ſhort, we ſaw, over an extent of upwards of half a

league,

league, a hard rock of trap of a greenish blue, in like manner coloured by copper.

It is this last, no doubt, that occasioned the ancients to give the name of *Cyaneæ* or *Cyanean Islands* to some islets which were situated at the mouth of the channel, near the coast of Europe. At this day they are nothing more than very small rocks; which leads us to believe that their size has diminished from the constant action of the waters which has eaten them away and undermined them by degrees. These rocks were also called *Symplegades*, because they appeared united or joined, according to the place whence they were viewed. As they are more or less apparent, according as the north or south wind raises or lowers the waters in this part, the Greeks, always inclined to the marvellous, have supposed that these islands were floating and infinitely dangerous to imprudent or inattentive mariners.

On one of these rocks the Romans erected an altar to Apollo, which, at Constantinople, is improperly called *Pompey's Pillar*. Several travellers have made efforts to read the Latin inscription which is there to be found; but the letters are at present so effaced, that it is difficult, perhaps even impossible, to accomplish that task.

We had not time to see whether the indications of a volcano extend to a great distance in Asia, because about ten or eleven o'clock in the morning the wind blew from the northern quarter, and raised a great swell on the sea: it would have been imprudent, in a small caïque, to cross from the point of Europe, where we were, to that of Asia. We contented ourselves with coasting the European shore for some time, and with convincing ourselves that the indications of the volcano extend on that side to upwards of a league.

The width of the channel, at its mouth, is from eighteen to nineteen hundred toiſes. The entrance is defended, on each ſide, by fortifications erected by Baron DE TOTT, and augmented lately by ſome French engineers. The Turks, through ignorance, through foreign influence, or through motives of economy, have always oppoſed the execution of the plans which the engineers preſented to them, though it was very important for them to deprive their natural enemies of the means of coming to diſturb them even in their capital. In fact, it would be very eaſy for the Ruſſians, at this moment, to penetrate into the channel, with a northerly wind, and to advance as far as CONSTANTINOPLE, becauſe the batteries being few in number and expoſed, the guns would ſoon be diſmounted by the fire of a line-of-battle ſhip. A fleet, beſides, would eſcape by receiving a few ſhot, if the Turkiſh gunners were more ſkilful, more exerciſed and more active than they are.

At ſome diſtance from theſe fortifications, there is in EUROPE and in ASIA a lighthouſe for guiding mariners and pointing out to them the mouth of the channel; which does not prevent ſhipwrecks from being very frequent when the wind is a little ſtrong, becauſe the Turks and Greeks, navigating on the BLACK SEA, without a compaſs and at a little diſtance from the land, are eaſily diſconcerted when they loſe ſight of the coaſt, or no longer diſtinguiſh where they are. Frequently it happens to them, when the weather is foggy, to take a direction contrary to that of their courſe. Citizen BEAUCHAMP, returning from TREBISOND, met with a Turkiſh ſhip which was ſteering to the eaſtward, thinking that ſhe was ſtanding for CONSTANTINOPLE: he had no ſmall difficulty to convince the maſter of his miſtake and perſuade him to follow the veſſel in which he was embarked.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER IX.

An error to be found in the Charts of the Black Sea.—Giant's *Mountain.—Earthquake.—Environs of* Belgrade.—*Mine of foſſil wood.—Mode of fiſhing followed in the environs of* Conſtantinople.

THE fanaticiſm and ignorance of the Turks having always oppoſed a barrier to the navigation of the European powers on the BLACK SEA, it follows that the charts publiſhed to this day are very defective. Citizen BEAUCHAMP having been requeſted, by the National Inſtitute, to determine, in a preciſe manner, the true poſition of the capes and principal towns ſituated on that ſea, could never procure the conſent of the PORTE to furniſh him with the means nor permiſſion to go thither to make his obſervations. The promiſe even of communicating the reſults which he might obtain, had no effect on the Turkiſh government or on the captain-pacha. The latter anſwered the drogueman who was ſpeaking to him on the ſubject; "*We have* "*navigated on this ſea for a long time paſt; we do not want to be better* "*acquainted with it, and all your obſervations would tend only to give a more ex-* "*act knowledge of it to our enemies.*"

However, by dint of ſolicitations, Citizen BEAUCHAMP obtained permiſſion to travel as a naturaliſt, and it was under this title that he ſurveyed the coaſt as far as TREBISOND. It reſults from his obſervations, that the ſouth coaſt advances in ſome places about a degree more towards the north, that Capes KÉRENPÉ and INDJÉ are nearly in the forty-ſecond degree, that the Gulf of SAMSON is much deeper, and that TREBISOND is five or ſix leagues more

to

to the weſtward than it is laid down on the charts. We had not the means of ſeeing the eaſtern coaſt and of detecting the errors concerning it. Thus it is that a fanatic and anti-ſocial nation prevents, not only the diffuſion of knowledge at home, but alſo objects to others coming thither for the purpoſe of diſcovering uſeful truths.

It is, undoubtedly, needleſs to eſtabliſh hypotheſes and enquire whether there was a period when the waters of the BLACK SEA, after having broken their dam, made an irruption into thoſe of the MEDITERRANEAN, or whether the communication of thoſe two ſeas be as ancient as their formation; it ought to be ſufficient for a traveller to ſtate facts: inductions will be eaſily drawn from them, when we ſhall have acquired a more exact knowledge of local circumſtances. We regret not having had it in our power to viſit all the ſhores of the BLACK SEA, in order to examine whether they indicate that the waters had riſen formerly to a height above that which they have at this day, and whether, after having broken the dam which the lands oppoſed to them, they have not fallen all at once to the point where they now remain. It is not to be doubted that the ſudden fall of the waters, if it had taken place, would have left manifeſt traces; the lands would preſent at a diſtance conſiderable ſtrands, imperceptible declivities, recent veſtiges of marine bodies, &c. &c.

Oppoſite to BUYUK-DÈRÈ is to be remarked in ASIA, a hill a little more elevated than the other, ſituated on the ſhore of the channel; it is known by the name of *GIANT'S MOUNTAIN*: it is famous from an infinite number of fables accredited, and from the ſuppoſition that there exiſts on it the grave of a giant. This hill is ſchiſtoſe, and has nothing remarkable but the fertility of its ſoil. Graſs grows there in abundance, vegetation is vigorous, and the number of ſcarce and curious plants is ſufficiently conſiderable to merit

the attention of the botanist. One part had been laid down in corn; a numerous flock came every day to graze on the other.

From the top of this hill are to be admired various prospects infinitely agreeable and diversified: on one side, is perceived the BLACK SEA: on the other, the Sea of MARMORA: the eye extends with pleasure over the fertile, hilly, and wild soil of EUROPE and ASIA, and one follows with a sort of rapture all the windings of the channel.

We afterwards strolled over different hills covered with brooms, rock-roses, arbutuses, and heath: we found the famous hellebore of HIPPOCRATES, the *daphne pontica* very common, a beautiful species of *bupleurum*, and a *laserpitium* which yielded us, in preparing it, a species of resinous gum very odoriferous, somewhat similar to gum ammoniac. We saw a great number of Greeks employed in tearing up the stumps of the arbutus, in order to make charcoal of it, as, in the department of the VAR and elsewhere, an excellent charcoal is made with the stumps of the *tree* heath and the *brush* heath.

On the 28th of Prairial (16th of June) at a few minutes past eleven o'clock in the morning, we felt a slight shock of an earthquake: the weather was then perfectly calm, the air a little foggy, and the heat somewhat powerful. It is well known that, in all times, these countries have been exposed to violent shocks. Historians relate that the temple erected by CONSTANTINE the Great to divine wisdom, was thrown down by an earthquake a little time after its construction. The superb church of ST. SOPHIA, built by JUSTINIAN on the ruins of the temple itself, suffered a little at another epoch. In 1509, under the reign of BAJAZET, a great part of CONSTANTINOPLE was likewise thrown down by a violent earthquake: but BITHYNIA, all the south coast of the BLACK SEA, almost all ASIA MINOR, and especially SYRIA, are still more

subject

ſubject to it. SMYRNA has been ſeveral times deſtroyed almoſt to the very ground. BURSA, NICEA, and NICODEMIA have experienced the ſame fate. We ſhall ſpeak elſewhere of the earthquakes of SYRIA on the occaſion of that which, during our ſtay in PERSIA, threw down a great part of the houſes of LATAKIA.

A few days after, we directed our ſteps towards the valley of BUYUK-DÉRÉ; we croſſed a wood of cheſnut-trees and oaks; we paſſed under the firſt aqueducts, and, after two hours' walk, we arrived at BELGRADE, a ſmall village where the ambaſſadors formerly paſſed the ſummer, but which they have abandoned by degrees, becauſe the air is become inſalubrious, ſince the Turks have neglected to keep in order and cleanſe the little lake which lies near the village. This lake has been formed in a valley, by means of a thick wall which ſtops the rain-waters and thoſe of ſome little ſprings which run thither. It furniſhes a part of the water which has been brought to CONSTANTINOPLE for the wants of the inhabitants.

In PERSIA, we have ſeveral times ſeen ſuch walls erected for the irrigation of the lands. This method is ſo ſimple, that we are ſurpriſed that it is not generally adopted in countries where water is wanting, in regions where the productions are infinitely more conſiderable and more valuable, when, during the ſummer, there can be introduced on a ſoil, a quantity of water ſufficient for the watering of the plants which it is there wiſhed to cultivate. In all mountainous countries, in gorges, in places where a valley grows narrow, a wall in maſonry may be conſtructed, and ſtrengthened on the outſide by earth brought for that purpoſe. There would neceſſarily be formed during the winter and ſpring, the ordinary ſeaſons of rains, a lake more or leſs extenſive, according to the diſpoſition of the ground and the choice that may have been made of it. This water may afterwards be diſtributed, either for the wants of a city, as at CONSTANTINOPLE, or for the

irrigation of lands ſituated below, as in PERSIA. It will, in certain places, be ſufficiently abundant to afford ſeveral fountains to a town, and to water, beſides, a part of its territory.

In the environs of BELGRADE, are met with ſeveral little villages, at no great diſtance from each other, almoſt all inhabited by Greeks. The fields preſent ſome degree of culture: vineyards and a few gardens are there to be ſeen. All this country affords fine cluſter or ſtalk-fruited oaks *, whoſe wood is very hard and very fit for ſhip-building. Various aqueducts conſtructed by the emperors of the EAST, for the purpoſe of bringing water to CONSTANTINOPLE, attract admiration.

The environs of BELGRADE are very well calculated for ſhooting; you may there kill pheaſants, woodcocks, red partridges, ſeveral ſpecies of ducks, hares, roes, and ſometimes red deer. Quails are very plentiful in autumn; you alſo ſee the ſtarling, the thruſh, the blackbird, the turtle, the roller, the loriot, the cuckoo, and almoſt all the birds of EUROPE.

For ſome days paſt we had ſeen, in the evening and during the night, little phoſphoric bodies ſcattered in great numbers in the air, croſſing each other in every direction, ſucceeding each other, tracing a luminous track and diſappearing with the rapidity of lightning. We ſoon diſcovered that this was the little Italian glow-worm †, the male and female of which are equally provided with wings, and equally luminous.

We had long known that there exiſted a coal-mine on the ſhores of the BLACK SEA, and another in the environs of RODOSTO; but we had not yet

* Chêne à grappe. *Quercus racemoſa.* LAMARCK. *Encycl.* No. 1.
† *Lampyris Italica.*

taken

taken any ſtep towards ſeeing them. Some Armenians who had recently obtained permiſſion from the captain-pacha to work the former for the wants of the arſenal, were very glad to have a converſation with us on that ſubject: their object was to learn from us the means of working their mine, from which they as yet drew but a coal of bad quality. We wiſhed to proceed to the ſpot, which gave them great pleaſure; ſo that, in the courſe of Thermidor, we ſet out from BUYUK-DÉRÉ, in order to repair thither. We croſſed a country very uneven, a little mountainous, at firſt volcanic, then ſchiſtoſe, uncultivated, covered with rock-roſes, arbutuſes and broom: we went to three or four ſmall villages, and we arrived on the ſhores of the BLACK SEA, after having walked near half an hour on a low ſandy ground, covered with a pretty bindweed with oval, downy leaves *.

The coaſt, elevated upwards of twenty toiſes, almoſt perpendicular for a great extent, preſents nothing but a mixture of clay and calcareous earth, gray or bluiſh, in which are to be remarked a few veins, more or leſs thick, of vegetable ſubſtances, and eſpecially of pieces of wood very diſtinguiſhable, which have not yet entirely reached the ſtate of charcoal. The waters of the ſea, when violently agitated by a wind rather ſtrong from the north or the eaſt, come to the very edge of the coaſt; but when they are ſmooth or nearly ſo, there is ſeen for a great extent a ſtrand of ſeveral toiſes in breadth, covered with ſtones and pebbles.

The Armenians worked this coaly ſubſtance only by cutting perpendicularly all the ſoil; this occaſioned them a conſiderable expenſe for which they received no indemnity, ſince they did not yet procure any real coal. We had ſome difficulty to make them underſtand that it was neceſſary to form galleries and penetrate into the mine. But, as we conjectured, either that the

* *Convolvulus Perſicus.*

mine

mine was good for nothing, or that the coal would be much lower, we prevailed on them to clear away the ſoil and penetrate into the veins which they ſhould diſcover beneath. "If your firſt eſſays," added we, "ſhould not procure you a better coal than that which you have hitherto obtained, relinquiſh your undertaking."

The mine which lies in the environs of RODOSTO on the PROPONTIS, appears to be of better quality than that on the ſhores of the BLACK SEA, were we to judge from ſome ſpecimens taken at the ſurface; for it has not yet been worked, though it is at a little diſtance from the ſea. We were aſſured that it extended afar, and that it was met with again in the environs of ERÉCLI.

In all ſeaſons of the year, fiſh is extremely common in the PROPONTIS, the BOSPHORUS, and the BLACK SEA; but as the Turks make very little uſe of this food, and as there is ſcarcely any other than the table of the Europeans and that of the rich Greeks and Armenians which are ſet out with it, it follows that there are very few fiſhermen throughout the EAST, and that at CONSTANTINOPLE even few perſons apply themſelves to this kind of induſtry.

We are not here ſpeaking of ſalted fiſh which comes in the way of trade, from the BLACK SEA, or from ſome countries of GREECE: as it is at a low price, it is in requeſt with the poor Greeks, Armenians and Jews, who make of it a rather great conſumption.

The mode of fiſhing the moſt followed in the environs of the capital, conſiſts in erecting in the places which are known to be frequented by ſtationary fiſhes or by fiſhes of paſſage, a ſcaffold in the form of an X, on the top of which a man places himſelf in order to obſerve the moment when the net, ſpread at the foot of it, is full of fiſh: at the ſignal which he gives, the net is drawn, and the fiſh are taken.

The

The bonito, which ſome ichthyologiſts improperly take for the young tunny, is there in great plenty, eſpecially at the end of the ſummer and in autumn. The bearded mullet, the *pageau* *, the dorado, the turbot, the mackarel, the ſole, the whiting, are the fiſhes the moſt in requeſt and the moſt common of thoſe ſeas.

In the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, are alſo taken various ſhell-fiſh more or leſs eſteemed by the Greeks. The oyſter is abundant and very well flavoured. Muſcles there acquire a conſiderable ſize. Lobſters and ſea cray-fiſh are there to be eaten in great plenty: the latter is as good there as in the South of FRANCE.

The dolphin appears not unfrequently in every ſeaſon of the year. Theſe fiſhes are ſeen to come in ſhoals into the very harbour, and play on the ſurface of the water, eſpecially when the ſea is ſmooth, and the wind blows from the ſouth quarter. The people of the country, more ignorant and more credulous than the ancients, relate reſpecting the dolphin an infinite number of ſtories all equally ridiculous, which we ſhall diſpenſe with repeating.

* We are ignorant what fiſh is here meant; but we will take an opportunity of informing our readers, when we have conſulted the Author.—*Tranſlator.*

CHAPTER

CHAPTER X.

Excurſion to Princes' *Iſlands.—Amuſement which is there to be found.—Deſcription of them.—Their culture and their productions.—Advantageous poſition for the eſtabliſhment of a lazaretto.*

We had already made two excurſions to Princes' Iſlands, the one in Meſſidor, the other in Thermidor: we reſolved, towards the end of Fructidor year I, (1793) to go thither for the third time, in order to examine them completely and to aſcertain all their productions. Several of our friends accompanied us, as well to divert themſelves after their occupations, as to ſhoot quails, extremely plentiful and very eaſy to be killed in this ſeaſon. A merchant was ſo kind as to receive us into his country-houſe and take on himſelf all the details of the expenſe. We hired two large caïques, and, in two hours, with a light breeze from the north-north-eaſt, we reached the harbour of Prinkipos, nearly twelve miles diſtant from Galata. The ſea was ſo ſmooth that no one was ſick; ſo that we were able to enjoy, at our eaſe, the different proſpects preſented to us by the coaſt of Asia. We ſoon paſſed Chalcedon, the deep bay which lies beyond it, and the cape planted with cypreſſes which comes next, and on which the Turks have erected a light-houſe. We left at a diſtance on the right, Prota and Antigona; we approached nearer to Chalkis, and we arrived at Prinkipos before ſun-ſet.

The town is ſituated on the eaſt part of the iſland, along the ſea-ſhore: it is almoſt entirely peopled by Greeks, the greater part mariners or cultivators. Its population may be eſtimated at two or three thouſand inhabitants. The coaſt of Asia being diſtant only about two leagues, ſhips anchor in all ſeaſons with ſafety, under ſhelter of all theſe iſlands, but more particularly at

one or two cables' length from the village of CHALKIS and PRINKIPOS: the caïques come and moor along the ſhore, to a ſort of quay.

The difficulty of repairing to CONSTANTINOPLE, when the weather is bad or the wind a little too ſtrong, has induced the ambaſſadors and agents of foreign powers, to prefer a reſidence at BELGRADE, TARAPIA, and BUYUK-DÉRÉ, where the air is leſs pure, leſs wholeſome, and where the plague makes its appearance more frequently than in theſe iſlands. But this diſadvantage is compenſated by the power which they have of ſetting out at all times from thoſe three villages, in a carriage or on horſeback, while they would be obliged ſometimes at the iſlands, to wait for favourable weather for returning to the capital, whither urgent buſineſs may call them every moment.

We arrived in the moſt agreeable ſeaſon and at the period of the year when the concourſe of people is the greateſt. We had every evening, in a coffee-houſe open to all the curious and all the amateurs a ſight much reliſhed by the Turks, and frequented even by the moſt decent women, although it moſt frequently repreſented ſcenes at which European females, the moſt ſhameleſs, would have bluſhed to be preſent: true it is that theſe women did not enter the coffee-houſe, but contented themſelves with remaining in the ſtreet, whence they could perceive every thing. This ſight is called *Karagueuze*, a ſort of *Ombres Chinoiſes* which conſtitute the delight of the capital, and which individuals in eaſy circumſtances procure themſelves from time to time at their own houſes. The ſcene which moſt diverted the ſpectators, was that of a he-aſs amuſing himſelf with a Jew. We were ſurpriſed, the firſt time that we were preſent at the kara-gueuze, to ſee the Turks, naturally grave and ſilent, give themſelves up to immoderate laughter at the ſight of theſe obſcenities. "What inconſiſtency," ſaid we, "in a nation which breaks out againſt liber-"tiniſm with an extreme rigour, often with ferocity, which puniſhes ſome-

" times with death the ſlighteſt attack on morals, which will not tolerate " proſtitutes, and which permits in public ſuch an indecency!"

The iſlands known under the name of PRINCES' Iſlands, are ſeven in number, four large, and five ſmall ones. The firſt is called PROTA; the ſecond, ANTIGONA; the third, CHALKIS; and the fourth, PRINKIPOS; to the ſouth of the latter, lies the little iſland called RABBIT Iſland; to the weſt, are two ſmall iſlands, one of which is known by the name of *OXYA*, and the other by that of *PLATA*: the two others are nothing but nameleſs rocks.

PRINKIPOS is the moſt conſiderable and the moſt fertile of them all: it appeared to us entirely volcanic and formed of quartz, granites, &c. &c. altered or decompoſed. The land is elevated, uneven, and hilly. It is dry and arid on the hills, red and tolerably fertile in the bottoms, and eſpecially to the ſouth of the town. The natural productions are the ALEPPO pine, known in the South of FRANCE by the name of *pin blanc*; the *oxycedrus* or brown-berried juniper; the broad-leaved phillyrea, the arbutus, the prickly pimpinella, the pale-flowered French lavender, the broom, the acute-leaved aſparagus, the Cretan ciſtus or rock-roſe, the turpentine-tree, a ſpecies of ſavory, the mallow-leaved bindweed, &c. &c.

The wild olive-tree is to be found in abundance on all the hills. We likewiſe ſaw it in the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the riſing grounds of the HELLESPONT and on thoſe of ASIA MINOR, at no great diſtance from the ſea. It is ſmall and ſtunted when it is without culture, and expoſed to be gnawed by cattle. Does it grow naturally in all the places where we ſaw it? Is it in ſome a remnant of ancient culture? This is a queſtion on which we ſhall avoid giving our opinion.

This

This tree does not grow on the borders of the BOSPHORUS nor in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, becauſe the cold is ſometimes more ſharply felt there than at PRINCES' Iſlands, on account of the vicinity of the BLACK SEA. But it is to be found ſtrong and vigorous in the ſouth part of the PROPONTIS, and on the ſhores of the HELLESPONT. Some tolerably fine ones are to be ſeen ſcattered in the fields of PRINKIPOS. I am ignorant whether it be cultivated on the coaſt of RODOSTO and of ERÉCLI: I had no opportunity of viſiting that country.

The culture of PRINKIPOS conſiſts in a few fields ſown with wheat, barley, chich-peas, kidney-beans, broad beans, &c. The vine is not there abundant; it is planted and trimmed as in the ſouth of FRANCE: it yields two or three ſorts of very good grapes, from which wine is ſeldom made. In this iſland the inhabitants prefer carrying the grapes to the markets of CONSTANTINOPLE, and there ſelling them.

Near the town are ſeveral gardens, in which are cultivated with no great ſkill a few kitchen-garden plants and fruit-trees, among which are diſtinguiſhed a ſpecies of fig-tree with fruit greeniſh without, red within, and of an excellent quality.

This iſland has ſeveral times ſerved as a priſon or place of exile to the Greek princes. Among others we recall to mind that IRENE, a young Athenian woman, born of noble but obſcure parents, raiſed to the throne by the charms of her mind and the graces of her perſon, ſet no bounds to her ambition, and ſtained herſelf by various crimes after the death of LEON PORPHYROGENETES, her huſband. She was dethroned by NICEPHORUS, one of her confidants, and baniſhed to a monaſtery of this iſland, which ſhe herſelf had cauſed to be erected *.

* Some authors ſay that ſhe was ſent to *Leſbos*.

Our fowling-pieces procured us every day a conſiderable quantity of quails. We had excellent pointers, which enabled us to come very cloſe to them before we put them up. They generally build their neſts under the rock-roſe, the prickly pimpinella, or other little ſhrubs; and as there are no trees in thoſe places they are very eaſily ſhot. They are extremely fat and very well taſted; in the ſpring they are much more ſcarce and leſs ſavoury. We ſaw ſome other birds of paſſage, ſuch as turtles, rollers, loriots, thruſhes, &c. and in particular falcons and ſparrow-hawks.

Hares are very ſcarce at PRINKIPOS, and rabbits are not there to be found; but the latter are in plenty in the little deſert iſland which bears their name. We ſometimes procured ourſelves the pleaſure of this diverſion, and we always brought back ſeveral rabbits. It is neceſſary to arrive very early in the morning, and ſurpriſe them before they have re-entered their burrows.

Fiſhing afforded us ſtill more reſources than fowling: we were every day ſerved with oyſters, muſcles, and ſeveral fiſhes, ſuch as mackarel, bonito, turbot, and particularly the bearded mullet. We ſeveral times found in the ſtomach of this laſt fiſh a very ſmall ſpecies of ſea-urchin which we have preſerved, and which we ſhall publiſh among the other articles of natural hiſtory.

The run from the town of PRINKIPOS to that of CHALKIS is nearly a league, and caïques are always to be found ready to receive paſſengers. We had appriſed the ſuperior of the monaſtery of the TRINITY, of the day we ſhould viſit his convent and take a dinner with him, in order that we might not find him unprovided; for, in general, the caloyers are very temperate and their fare is very ſcanty. One is fortunate to find in their convent, honey, eggs, and ſome fruit. Strangers, in order to make a return for the civilities which they receive under their roof, never fail to viſit the church, and to leave in a baſin the pieces of money which they judge proper to give.

This

This monaſtery, ſituated on a hill almoſt in the middle of the iſland, enjoys a charming proſpect: the air there is very ſalubrious, and it is not uncommon to find a numerous ſociety, becauſe Europeans and even Greeks frequently go thither to ſpend a part of the ſummer, far from the buſtle and tumult of the capital. We ſtopped a long time to contemplate over the door of the church the repreſentation of hell, purgatory, and paradiſe, although the painting was very bad. Hell was filled with Muſſulmans, biſhops, archbiſhops, and Greeks richly dreſſed; purgatory and paradiſe were peopled only by caloyers, papas, or prieſts, and Greeks more ſimply dreſſed. We aſked the friars who accompanied us, if they were not afraid of ſome miſchief on the part of the Turks for damning them in this manner. They told us that this had happened to them once, but that they had got out of the ſcrape for a little money. They added, that they ſet a great value on their picture, and that they would preſerve it as long as they could, without expoſing themſelves too much.

There is another monaſtery in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, remarkable from ſeveral beautiful alleys of cypreſſes, and from a wood of pines, from a ſpacious building, and from the number of caloyers who reſide there. The latter, though very agreeably ſituated, does not, like the other, enjoy ſo extenſive and ſo diverſified a proſpect.

There are likewiſe two monaſteries at Prinkipos, ſituated in the moſt elevated and the moſt ſolitary places in the iſland. The caloyers apply themſelves to the culture of the fields belonging to their monaſtery, or to ſome branch of induſtry uſeful to the community. Their wants are very limited, becauſe they have never allowed luxury to be introduced among them: their health is for a long time preſerved ſtrong and vigorous by moderate labour, temperance, and peace of mind; and what, perhaps, conſtitutes their greateſt

happineſs,

happineſs, is that the Turks do not come to diſturb the repoſe and tranquillity which they enjoy in theſe places.

CHALKIS is leſs conſiderable than PRINKIPOS, and its village is a little leſs extenſive; its productions are nearly the ſame, and the ſoil preſents every where indications of a volcano. On the hill neareſt the village is found a hard, brittle rock, which appears ferruginous; and, towards the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, a mine of copper which appears to have been anciently worked: it is probably from this circumſtance that it derived the name of CHALKIS, from the Greek word χαλκος, which ſignifies copper: but we ſaw nothing that indicates the gold-mine of which ARISTOTLE and STEPHEN of BYSANTIUM have ſpoken.

If the Turks were capable of perceiving that it is eaſy to ſecure themſelves from the plague by taking againſt that terrible ſcourge the precautions which are employed in EUROPE, the poſition of PRINCES' Iſlands would, no doubt, be invaluable for the accompliſhment of that object, and for the ſecurity of the capital by ſea: a lazaretto might be eſtabliſhed at PROTA or at ANTIGONA, becauſe thoſe iſlands have very few inhabitants, and ſhips anchor there in great ſafety. In the former of thoſe two iſlands exiſt alſo the ruins of a village and two monaſteries, which atteſt that it is ſuſceptible of ſome degree of culture, and that it may afford places for walking and recreation to perſons who might be obliged to perform quarantine.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER XI.

We enter a harem.—Marriage of the Muſſulmans. —Polygamy.—Its reſults.—Influence of women in all affairs.

Two days after our return from PRINCES' Iſlands, we were invited by a *capidgi-bachi* to embark on the BOSPHORUS, and proceed to viſit his mother who had been ill for ſome time, in order to give our opinion to a Greek phyſician that attended her, and preſcribe the treatment which we ſhould judge the moſt proper. The envoy of the Republic, at whoſe houſe we were at that moment, warmly ſolicited us to render ſervice to a man who enjoyed great influence with the Grand Signior, and who might be uſeful to the French eſtabliſhed in the LEVANT. We acceded the more willingly to the entreaties of the envoy, as by obliging a man in power, we were enabled to ſatisfy our curioſity. In fact, for a long time paſt I had been wiſhing to ſee the interior of a Turkiſh family, and to carry an obſerving eye into the very harems, in order to learn the arrangements of them, and remark the cuſtoms which are there eſtabliſhed. Phyſic frequently furniſhed me with this opportunity in the courſe of our travels, and put it in my power to ſee that, in ſpite of bolts and keepers, women will find means to be revenged for the tyranny of men.

An appointment was made for the next morning. We ſet out early, accompanied by a drogueman and a janizary belonging to the legation, and we arrived at the houſe of the capidgi at the ſame time as the Greek phyſician. We were received in a handſome kioſk, a ſort of ſaloon open on the ſides, ornamented with paintings, gilding, and Arabic ſentences taken from the Koran. In the middle were a *jet d'eau*, and a baſin of white marble:

on one ſide, was a view of the BOSPHORUS; and, on the other, that of a beautiful garden, and of part of the capidgi's houſe built with much elegance.

After the cuſtomary compliments, pipes and coffee were brought: we converſed for ſome time reſpecting his mother's diſorder, and we learnt with ſurpriſe that the phyſician had found it a more eaſy matter to make his patient believe that ſhe was bewitched, than to cure her. The capidgi then ſpoke to us of himſelf, and communicated to us his particular complaints: he lamented bitterly that he was no longer able, as formerly, to carry into his harem joy and pleaſure. This man, forty odd years of age, was, in other reſpects, robuſt and of a ſtrong conſtitution; he had betimes abuſed the pleaſures which he regretted, and was obliged to have recourſe to an opiate compoſed of materials the moſt hot and moſt irritating, in order to diſcharge his duties of huſband on the night from Thurſday to Friday, according to the precept of MAHOMET.

After an hour's converſation, we went to the female patient: no ſervant followed us. The capidgi made us croſs various apartments, the doors of which he himſelf opened and ſhut. We arrived at a hall rather ſpacious, ſurrounded on three ſides by a ſopha covered with a beautiful crimſon cloth, trimmed with gold fringe. On the floor were ſpread a fine Egyptian mat and a few little Perſian carpets. The ſick woman was in the middle of the room on a light mattreſs, ſurrounded by large cuſhions on which ſhe was leaning. She had her clothes on, according to the cuſtom of the Orientals, who do not undreſs themſelves when they are ill, or when they lie down to ſleep. When we entered her apartment, ſhe wore, no doubt on our account, a white muſlin veil, which ſhe ſoon took off: two young female ſlaves were there to wait on her.

This

This woman, who was near ſixty years old, had an exceſſive embonpoint; ſhe was troubled with the vapours, and affected with a ſcrofulous complaint which made its appearance on different parts of her body. She was, in other reſpects, in tolerable health, and had preſerved her appetite. She told us ſome very ſingular ſtories reſpecting her complaints, which ſhe attributed, among other things, to a malicious female ſlave who had bewitched her, becauſe ſhe had refuſed to conſent to her being married.

During this converſation, curioſity had attracted the capidgi's women behind a grate which ſeparated the room we were in from that where they were. We ſaw lifted up, from time to time, a curtain which concealed them, and which they let down when we directed our looks towards them. The two ſlaves who were near us did not fail to make us feel their pulſe, and to aſk us various queſtions: they were young and very handſome; one of them, more bold, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the ſick woman, who ſeveral times reminded her of her indecorous behaviour, could not help putting her hands on our garments which ſhe thought very extraordinary, and perhaps even indecent, from every part of the body being too apparent for perſons accuſtomed, to ſee men only with garments very ample, and which conceal the whole body.

We preſcribed to the patient a calming opiate and the uſe of the bitter-ſweet or *ſolanum dulcamara*, which we had perceived in one of our excurſions to a village beyond BELGRADE. The capidgi ſtrongly preſſed us to come and ſee him again; which we could not diſpenſe with doing at the expiration of a few days.

When we had left the houſe, the Greek phyſician informed us that the harem of this man was compoſed of thirty Georgian and Circaſſian ſlaves, intended for waiting on his wife, a young princeſs to whom he was indebted for his intereſt and his fortune. It was ſince this marriage that the phyſi-

cian had brought him to the uſe of aphrodiſiacs, and came pretty regularly to his houſe in order to inquire into their effect.

He likewiſe informed us of the Turkiſh laws relative to marriage, and communicated to us ſeveral curious obſervations which his quality of phyſician had enabled him to make in the harems. In the courſe of our travels, we ourſelves have had opportunities of collecting obſervations reſpecting the Muſſulman women, of ſtudying their manners comparatively with thoſe of the Greek and French women born in the LEVANT, and of rectifying the ideas which too great precipitation might at firſt have made us adopt. The reader will not perhaps be diſpleaſed with us for the efforts which we made in this reſpect.

In TURKEY, the law permits three manners of cohabiting with women. TOURNEFORT has ſaid, with reaſon, that a man married the firſt, hired the ſecond, and purchaſed the third.

The Muſſulman women live very retired, and do not appear in public without a veil and garments which conceal their figure and diſguiſe their whole body: there is no one but the huſband and the neareſt relations, ſuch as the fathers, the brothers, and the uncle-germans, who ſometimes have acceſs to the harems, and can ſee a Muſſulman woman with her face uncovered. The man who wiſhes to marry can be acquainted with the charms of the perſon and the attractions of the mind of his future wife, only from the account of ſome female relation or friend, or of ſome intermediatrix of an advanced age. Commonly the latter gives every information that is wanted, tries to ſmooth all difficulties which may ariſe, and prepares and arranges all matters. When the relations are agreed among themſelves, they fix the ſum that the huſband ſhall give as a preſent to his wife for *the price of her blood*. An inventory is taken of every thing that belongs to the latter, in fur-

niture, clothes, money, or property, becauſe every thing is to be reſtored to her in caſe of divorce or repudiation. When ſhe dies without children, the huſband keeps a part of what he has received, and returns the other to the relations, as is regulated by the law.

The preliminaries being ſettled, the future huſband, the father or the neareſt relation of the young lady, go, with two witneſſes, to the houſe of the cadi, in order to get him to ſign the articles of the marriage, and obtain a permiſſion for it in writing. The celebration of the marriage cannot take place but on the eve of the Friday, which anſwers, among the Muſſulmans, to the Sunday of the Chriſtians, and to the Saturday of the Jews. One or two days before, the young lady is conducted to the bath, where ſhe is ſubjected to depilation for the firſt time. On the day of the wedding, ſhe dreſſes herſelf in the richeſt clothes that ſhe can procure, and covers herſelf with jewels, pearls, and pieces of money which the relations very often borrow. They try to embelliſh the young lady's face, by colouring it with red, white, and blue, and by painting her eyebrows and eyelids black. In certain countries, they next colour the arms and hands with black, paint the nails yellow or black, and the feet an orange colour yellow: laſtly, they place with art, on the head-dreſs and among the braids which hang behind, flowers, pearls, precious ſtones, and gold coin. In Egypt and in Syria, theſe braids are very numerous and each is terminated by one or more ſequins.

Thus adjuſted and placed on a ſeat more elevated than the ſopha, ſhe is to compoſe her carriage, caſt her eyes down or keep them ſhut, while a troop of women invited to the feaſt give themſelves up to joy, and various dances are performed, the company ſinging or playing on different inſtruments.

At night, the female relations of the huſband and ſome women invited by them come with flambeaus and a noiſy band of muſic to the houſe of the

young lady, in order to take her to that of the huſband. She goes out accompanied by her female relations and friends: the men do not follow her, but remain at their homes amuſing themſelves.

Being arrived at the huſband's houſe, ſhe is perfumed and placed on an elevated ſeat, prepared on purpoſe for her. All the women not belonging to the family go out a moment after, and there no longer remain any but the female relations of the contracted couple.

The bridegroom, during this time, is in another apartment, where his relations and ſome young men whom he has invited, perfume him, dreſs him in his richeſt clothes, and ſing ſongs analogous to the ceremony.

A moment after, all the men, accompanied by their muſic, ſally forth in order to proceed to the moſque. They ſay their prayers with the greateſt compoſure, after which they come to the door of the huſband's houſe, where he enters, accompanied only by his relations. While the huſband is at the moſque, the bride is brought into the apartments that are intended for her. On returning from the moſque, the father of the huſband, or any other relation the moſt advanced in years, leads by the hand the huſband to his wife, preſents him to her, and retires. There remains no one but the midwife or a female relation who ſerves up a ſupper to the huſband, while the wife continues ſtanding before him, in a very humble attitude. After ſupper, the latter preſents to her huſband a baſin, water, and a towel, in order that he may waſh and wipe himſelf: ſhe then gives him a pipe and coffee, after which ſhe herſelf ſups. When ſhe has ſupped, the midwife withdraws, and the married couple remain by themſelves.

The next morning, the huſband goes into another apartment, and, as ſoon as his back is turned, one of his female relations comes and ſpreads on the

the door of the room the drawers which the wife has worn during the night.

All the women prefent the preceding evening, more richly dreffed, come to pay their compliments and give themfelves up the whole day to joy. They muft fee the marks of virginity of the bride; the midwife muft fhew them the drawers ftained with blood; after this ceremony, fhe folds them up, carefully puts them by, and depofits them in the hands of the mother of the bride or her neareft female relation.

The bride is to be that day in a modeft attitude; fhe is to obferve filence, keep her eyes caft down and remain quiet on the fopha, while all the women around her are abandoning themfelves to joy.

The fecond manner of a man marrying one or feveral wives, diftinguifhed by the name of *kapin*, confifts in his prefenting himfelf before the cadi, and binding himfelf to feed and maintain till a certain period, fuch a woman whom he defignates and whofe confent he has obtained: which is atteftted by her father or her neareft relation, and two witneffes; to take care of the children that fhe fhall bear and to give up to her befides, at the time of repudiation or at the expiration of the term agreed on, a fum of money or clothes, effects and property ftipulated and expreffed. The children that proceed from thefe marriages, enjoy the fame rights as the others, and remain at the charge of the father when he has repudiated or put away his wife.

It feldom happens that Muffulmans marry in this manner, becaufe women of a certain rank would never confent to be united to a man on fuch conditions, and becaufe the latter generally prefers to purchafe flaves, rather than marry in the *kapin* manner with Muffulman women born of poor parents.

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The traffic for ſlaves is very expreſsly prohibited to Jews and Chriſtians, and is allowed only to Muſſulmans. The law authorizes the latter to have whatever number of ſlaves they may deſire, and ſubmits them to no ſort of formality. The children that they obtain are free, and ſhare, like the others, in the diviſion of their property after their death.

The law prohibits not Muſſulmans from marrying a woman of a different religion, provided the parties bind themſelves to bring up their children in the religion of the father; but it is expreſsly forbidden to women, unleſs the man embraces beforehand the religion of MAHOMET. It puniſhes with death a Jew or a Chriſtian caught with a Muſſulman woman, in a place or in ſuch a manner as to cauſe the ſuſpicion of a carnal intercourſe. He cannot eſcape but by embracing the Muſſulman religion and marrying this woman, if, however, ſhe conſent to this, and they both be unreſtricted by the ties of wedlock. In the contrary caſe, the man is carried to execution; the woman eſcapes a puniſhment leſs ſevere only by declaring that ſhe was forced or taken by ſurpriſe, or by denying that any thing improper paſſed between them.

If the woman be married, her fate depends on the huſband: he may carry his revenge ſo far even as to puniſh her with death; but frequently the fear of her relations reſtrains his arm when ready to ſtrike: he then contents himſelf with repudiating her.

It enters not into our plan to examine what were the motives which determined MAHOMET to allow four wives to the followers of his religion, independently of ſuch a number of concubines as they could ſupport. Has he wiſhed to pleaſe one ſex at the expenſe of the other? Has he thought by this means to obtain a greater population? In ſhort, has he wiſhed to ſanction a cuſtom which exiſts in ARABIA from time immemorial?

Polygamy

Polygamy offers inconveniences without number and ſo ſtriking, that every one muſt be aſtoniſhed that legiſlators ſhould have permitted or tolerated it. The firſt of theſe inconveniences, and the greateſt no doubt, is that it is prejudicial to the population of a State; it is that it favours pederaſty; it is that ſeveral women cannot quietly ſhare among them the pleaſures, too ſeldom occurring, which the huſband diſtributes to them: miſtruſt, jealouſy, hatred, quarrels, muſt neceſſarily eſtabliſh their empire in a harem and thence baniſh true pleaſure.

It ſhould ſeem, on the firſt view of the ſubject, that polygamy is favourable to population, for though the phyſical faculties of man are limited, he can, nevertheleſs, in a rather ſhort ſpace of time fecundify ſeveral women, and obtain a great number of children during the courſe of his life.

But as the number of women is nearly equal to that of men, it can only be at the expenſe of the poor that the rich take ſeveral of them: a man cannot have four wives, without three others being deprived of them; and, indeed, it will not be preſumed that four women, ſhut up in a harem with a ſingle man, ſometimes old and infirm, can have the ſame number of children as when thoſe women have each a huſband, whoſe favours they alone enjoy.

The harems, it is true, are ſcarcely filled with any but foreign females, Georgian, Circaſſian, and Ethiopian ſlaves brought annually in the way of trade; but it brings alſo a greater number of male ſlaves; which muſt induce the ſuppoſition that, in general, the number of the men in TURKEY, is at leaſt as great as that of the women. But what proves that polygamy is prejudicial to the population of that empire, is that, notwithſtanding this great number of ſlaves of both ſexes who come from European countries, from ASIA, and from AFRICA, the empire is becoming conſiderably depopulated, though there are no inſtances of emigration on the part of the Muſſulmans;

though

though, for a long time paſt, wars there are by no means frequent and by no means deſtructive. The population of the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, on the contrary, is kept up, notwithſtanding their emigration and the tyranny of the Turks in regard to them: but the former, as is well known, marry but one wife, and it is very expreſsly forbidden to them to have ſlaves and concubines; which is the reaſon that they marry early in life, and that few among them remain bachelors.

The ſtate of inability in which a man finds himſelf to ſatisfy the deſires of a great number of women, has ſuggeſted the idea of bolts, harems, and thoſe unfortunate beings appointed to take care of them, deprived of the faculty of reproducing themſelves. Jealouſy, frequently atrocious, has cauſed adultery to be puniſhed with death; and the government has thought itſelf bound, not only ſtrictly to oppoſe libertiniſm by ſeparating the two ſexes, but alſo to deal very ſeverely with girls or women convicted of amorous intrigues. This ſeverity in regard to morals, this ſeparation of the two ſexes, and above all the total privation of women experienced by a great number of individuals, has introduced in the EAST a paſſion for boys, a paſſion reprobated by the philoſopher, held in abhorrence by the legiſlator, and far more immoral, far more infamous than the illegal intercourſe of the two ſexes, from which, beſides, there reſults no advantage to ſociety.

Through an inconſiſtency worthy of remark, the law, which always lays under contribution, which ſometimes puniſhes with death the man who gives way to a natural inclination, who obeys the imperious voice of Nature, tolerates however, and ſeems to permit a vice which beſpeaks a total depravity of morals. The Muſſulmans, very auſtere in o her reſpects, give themſelves up without ſhame to the taſte which miſleads them, and the habit of which they have contracted in the early part of their life. Very far from bluſhing at this vice, they make it ſerve for the gratification of their vanity, and ſhew

with

with pride the object of their affections. This paſſion is become ſo ſtrong among them, that they endeavour to ſatisfy it by every poſſible means, and very frequently employ violence. Among other inſtances, one occurred at SMYRNA, where a European ſailor, upwards of ſixty years of age, was killed and violated by three janizaries, without there being a poſſibility of obtaining their juſt puniſhment.

Proſtitutes are neither allowed nor tolerated: the government ſometimes deals very rigorouſly with thoſe who are of the Muſſulman religion. It is not uncommon for ſome of them to be laid hold of during the night, and, after they have been tied up in a ſack with ſome ſtones, for them to be thrown alive into the ſea, towards the point of the ſeraglio; and yet one frequently meets in the ſtreets of CONSTANTINOPLE Greek youths, dreſſed in an effeminate manner, announcing by their carriage that they are ready to abandon themſelves to whoever will pay them.

Notwithſtanding the cuſtoms of the country, theſe youths preſerve their hair, take the greateſt care of it, waſh it every day, perfume it with muſk, amber, and eſſence of roſes, and adorn it with the flowers of the ſeaſon. An artificial red colours their cheeks, an ebony black is placed on their eye-brows and eye-lids, in order to animate their eyes and form a contraſt with the fairneſs of their complexion. To all the natural charms of the body, they generally join thoſe of the mind, and not unfrequently they borrow the attractions of muſic and dancing.

Although the law allows Muſſulmans to have four wives, yet few among them have more than one, becauſe they lead to conſiderable expenſe; becauſe, ſhut up in the ſame harem, they cannot live together in harmony; they perplex the huſband with their complaints, or plague him with their pretenſions. Beſides, almoſt every woman, on her marriage, requires an obliga-

tion from the huſband, not to wed another in her life-time or as long as ſhe ſhall not have been ſeparated by a divorce. But ſhe cannot prevent him from purchaſing white or black ſlaves, according to his taſte and his means; and provided he lie with his wife once a week, according to the obligation which MAHOMET has impoſed on every Muſſulman ſtill young and in good health; provided he furniſh her wherewith to clothe and maintain herſelf according to her condition, and to go to the bath when ſhe has been polluted by him or by the indiſpoſitions natural to her ſex, ſhe cannot ſue for a divorce. But what is, perhaps, more grievous, ſhe neither is juſtified in complaining that the huſband is frequently parſimonious of a pleaſure which ſhe claims, and of which he is prodigal towards ſome Georgian or Circaſſian male ſlave.

But if he wiſhed to require from his wife the ſame indulgences that he is accuſtomed to obtain from his male ſlaves, ſhe is authorized to preſent herſelf before the cadi, in order to demand of him the puniſhment of the huſband and even a divorce; this the judge grants if ſhe be ſeconded by her relations, and if, beſides, the reputation of the huſband give to the complaint an air of truth; and, in order to ſpare this woman the ſhame of declaring ſuch a circumſtance in preſence of the whole tribunal, ſhe is to have recourſe to a ſign agreed on, and confine herſelf to turning over her ſlippers.

In no caſe, can the huſband require any thing from the ſlaves that belong to the wife: he has a right only over thoſe that he himſelf has purchaſed. It very ſeldom happens that he forgets himſelf in this reſpect, becauſe the wife would not fail to prefer her complaint and cauſe him to be puniſhed.

When a man wiſhes that peace and happineſs ſhould dwell under his roof, he confines himſelf ſolely to his wife; or if he take any liberty in regard to the

female ſlaves that he has purchaſed to wait on her, he recommends to them to preſerve towards her the greateſt reſpect and ſubmiſſion. He endeavours to perſuade them that ſhe is ignorant of the love which he has for them; and the wife, on her ſide, wiſhing to preſerve peace in the family, pretends to be ignorant of the infidelity of the huſband, and ſubmits with leſs pain to the privation to which he condemns her, being indemnified by the empire which ſhe continues to exerciſe over her ſlaves.

But when a Turk marries ſeveral wives who have all the ſame rights and the ſame pretenſions, it is very rare that preferences do not lead to jealouſies and quarrels; it is very rare that they ſee with coolneſs one of themſelves receive more frequently marks of attachment, without giving vent to their complaints. And however impartial the huſband may be in the diſtribution of his favours, they all will tax him with injuſtice, all will believe or pretend to believe their rivals more fortunate, and the huſband more eager to pleaſe them.

It is much worſe if diſguſt keep him at a diſtance from his wives, and lead him entirely towards his female ſlaves; and if the latter, abuſing the weakneſs of the huſband, take advantage and grow proud of the favours which they receive; if they appear leſs ſubmiſſive and leſs reſpectful, then peace cannot be re-eſtabliſhed but by the diſmiſſion of theſe inconſiderate ſlaves and the ſincere return of the huſband towards the wives.

From this arrangement of Turkiſh families, it is ſeen that the wife has an eye on the female ſlaves, becauſe ſhe would be very glad to find them in fault in order to ſet the huſband againſt them; and the ſlave who ſhares the bed of the huſband, is the moſt dangerous Argus for the wife: the latter never goes out without being accompanied by the other; which renders infidelity rather uncommon.

Some women, in the indigent claſs of the people, give themſelves up to men with tolerable facility for money, and in ſpite of the ſeverity of the government. Among the rich, there are in TURKEY, as in EUROPE, amorous intrigues: but in a country where a woman ſeldom goes out, where ſhe is ſurrounded by the female relations of the huſband and by female ſlaves intereſted in watching her, it is evident that theſe intrigues preſent an infinite number of difficulties to be ſurmounted, and obſtacles to be overcome, which render them leſs common. Almoſt always the woman makes the firſt advances; does ſhe perceive a good-looking man, a man who pleaſes her, ſhe ſets a matron to work, and informs herſelf of every thing that can intereſt her. Is ſhe certain that the man anſwers her paſſion? A party is arranged; ſhe goes out with her uſual retinue, and proceeds to the houſe of a female relation or friend, or to that of ſome female ſlave made free and married: thence ſhe repairs, under various pretexts, to the houſe of another female ſlave, or to that of ſome Jeweſs, ſometimes to a third, alone or accompanied by ſome truſty perſon. There it is that the man has been introduced, frequently diſguiſed as a woman. Parties are in this manner renewed as often as circumſtances may permit, without incurring too much danger. Advantage is taken of the huſband's abſence or of the moment of prayer at the moſque. When the woman is ſure of her ſlaves, which is very ſeldom the caſe, ſhe can introduce a man into the harem; but woe be to thoſe who are diſcovered, almoſt always death enſues.

The bath may alſo ſerve as a place of rendezvous, when with money a man may rely on the diſcretion of the perſons who have charge of them, and when he is certain of not being diſturbed by them.

There are in CONSTANTINOPLE and in the great cities, Jeweſſes and Armenian women who carry into the harems valuable ſtuffs, jewels, perfumes, baubles, and comfits to be purchaſed; the greater part of them are ſkilful matrons,

matrons, through whose hands pass all amorous intrigues. Every one knows that love watched or laid under constraint is inventive, and that it very frequently finds means to conceal itself from the vigilance of keepers. As no secret conversations can be held without exciting suspicion, and as the Turkish women seldom can write, these matrons keep up correspondences by the arrangement of the flowers of a nosegay, by the disposition of different colours, or of any other sign agreed on.

It is above all in SYRIA and in EGYPT that the art of expressing ideas by means of flowers is carried to such a pitch, that the most active correspondence may take place between two lovers, without awakening the attention of jealousy, without attracting the looks of overseers.

The influence which Turkish women have over public affairs, in the nomination of the agents of the government, and in the distribution of favours and punishments, is much more considerable than might be presumed, from their retired manner of living. The harems are the places of rendezvous inaccessible to men *, where the most interesting anecdotes of the town and of the provinces pass successively in review, where the most curious news are spread, where plots and conspiracies are framed. Women of every age and every rank come thither to solicit graces and favours for their husbands or their relations, or in order to complain of a husband too jealous, too severe, and demand protection against him, or against some person of weight. An affair often passes through the channel of several women before it arrives at its destination: an emancipated female slave, or woman of the lowest class of the

* The husband never enters his wife's apartment when she is with female strangers. This custom is very scrupulously observed.

people

people, ſometimes obtains through her patroneſſes ſuch an intereſt, that her protection is ſought after from all quarters.

The Muſſulman women ſupport each other, and are always ready to make a common cauſe. They are implacable in their reſentment, and ſeldom fail to revenge themſelves for an outrage or an offence at all ſerious. Their influence is increaſed by that which a favourite ſlave or the Sultana-Validai generally obtains over the ſultan.

CHAPTER XII.

Of the Georgian and Circaſſian women.—Of ſlavery.—We enter the market of female ſlaves.—Cuſtom of the women in regard to ſuckling and ſterility.—Of the harems and baths.

THROUGHOUT the EAST much is ſaid in praiſe of the beauty of the Georgian and Circaſſian women, ſlaves brought to CONSTANTINOPLE, and there ſold, while young, and thence ſcattered all over TURKEY, in order to ſerve in the harems or produce children to their maſters. Theſe women, from the account which has been given us of them by the female chriſtians of the country who frequent them, and from the ſmall number of thoſe whom the practice of phyſic has afforded us an opportunity to ſee, have European features: almoſt all are fair with dark hair; ſome have flaxen or light brown hair; all are finely proportioned when they are young; but they generally acquire, through repoſe, good living, and the frequent uſe of baths, an embonpoint which conſtitutes the delight of the Turks, and which, nevertheleſs, exceeds the limits of beautiful proportion.

The Turks have nearly the ſame ideas of the beauty of women, as the Europeans, except that, in general, they prefer the fair with dark hair, and thoſe with light brown to the flaxen, and exceſſive embonpoint to thinneſs: it may even be ſaid that women in good health and plump pleaſe them much better than thoſe whoſe ſhape is ſlender, whoſe perſon and limbs are pliant, and not very fleſhy.

One

One muſt not be ſurpriſed that theſe women are, in general, very well made, ſince they are the choice of all that is moſt beautiful among thoſe that are ſold in the Turkiſh markets, by the parents themſelves. But what muſt excite aſtoniſhment, is that avarice ſhould overcome religious prejudices; that a father and mother, at the ſight of gold, ſhould ſhut their heart to tenderneſs and to the ſweeteſt affections; that they ſhould abandon and give up without remorſe a child, to be brought up in a different religion and ſerve for the pleaſures of whoever will purchaſe her. And the chriſtian prieſts of that country endure and permit this infamous traffic for a few prayers and ſome alms, ſo true it is, according to them, *that there is a way of accommodating matters with heaven.*

The price of theſe ſlaves, in the markets of CONSTANTINOPLE, varies like that of all merchandiſe, and is regulated according to their number and that of the purchaſers. They commonly coſt from 500 to 1000 piaſtres, that is from 1000 to 2000 livres. But a female ſlave of a rare beauty amounts to an exceſſive price without there being a neceſſity for expoſing her to ſale, becauſe moſt of the rich men are always ready to make pecuniary ſacrifices in order to procure ſuch for themſelves. The men in place and the ambitious are likewiſe eager to purchaſe them in order to lay them at the feet of their ſovereign or preſent them to their protectors, and place about them women who, being indebted to them for their elevation, may endeavour through gratitude to contribute to that of their former maſters.

In no caſe does a female ſlave ſhew herſelf naked to him who wiſhes to purchaſe her: this is contrary to Ottoman decorum and manners; but when ſhe is marriageable, it frequently happens that the purchaſer ſends a matron of his acquaintance to examine her, and aſcertain whether ſhe be a virgin.

A perſon

A perſon would have a falſe idea of ſlavery among the Turks and the Perſians, were he to judge of it from that which the Europeans have eſtabliſhed in their colonies, and above all from the accounts of the unfortunate captives of the coaſt of BARBARY, who have been made to undergo harſh treatment, and been tormented, in a thouſand ways in order to oblige them to embrace the Muſſulman religion. In TURKEY and in PERSIA, ſlaves of both ſexes, commonly purchaſed before the age or the period of puberty, are brought up in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the ſame kindneſs and almoſt with the ſame reſpect as the ſons of the family. It ſeldom happens that a Turk ſells again a ſlave with whom he is diſſatisfied; he contents himſelf with threatening him and even with puniſhing him as he would puniſh a ſon. After a ſervitude more or leſs long, according as this Muſſulman is a more or leſs exact obſerver of the precepts of MAHOMET, who fixes the period of ſlavery to nine years, he gives him his liberty, and marries him: almoſt always, at his death, his ſlaves become free, whether he may have been able to dictate his will, or becauſe the heirs conſider it their duty to follow his intention in this reſpect.

When a maſter is a man of weight and attaches himſelf to any of his ſlaves, he neglects nothing for their education and advancement. For that purpoſe he employs his intereſt and his fortune, as he would do in regard to his own ſon; and it muſt be confeſſed that, in general, theſe ſlaves are more attached to their maſters and ſerve them better, whether in their houſes, or in battle, than their ſervants.

No one is ignorant, that, in TURKEY, the art of pleaſing a maſter, intelligence, boldneſs, and laſtly money, lead to every thing, and carry a man rapidly to the firſt employments. Moſt of the pachas and great men of the empire, raiſed by fortune and intrigue, from the rank of ſlave or of ſimple private perſon to that which they occupy, are for all the Turks a ſpur ever

active which animates and encourages them. In all adminiſtrative and military places, talents are held in no eſtimation; they are almoſt always uſeleſs, and even frequently dangerous.

The prejudices of EUROPE, in regard to birth, not being known in the LEVANT, moſt of the Turks marry, without difficulty, their ſlaves, or give them in marriage to their ſons. In like manner they give, without repugnance, their daughters in marriage to the male ſlaves with whom they are pleaſed; they grant them their freedom and procure them commiſſions, employments, or give them money to undertake a trade or exerciſe a profeſſion.

The priſoners whom the fate of war throws into the hands of the Turks, if they be not exchanged immediately after the battle, which is very ſeldom the caſe, or if they be not maſſacred, which more frequently happens, are ſlaves, and belong to thoſe who have taken them. They are ſometimes carried to a conſiderable diſtance from the theatre of war, and there ſold, in order that they may not make their eſcape, nor be exchanged. Thoſe ſlaves, of more advanced age than the others, frequently refuſe to renounce their religion; which is the reaſon that they do not then enjoy the ſame advantages as the Muſſulman ſlaves, and that they are treated with leſs kindneſs. They are employed in the roughest and moſt degrading labours, and cannot hope to be ſet at liberty but by paying a ranſom; which to them is almoſt always impoſſible, for they ſeldom have the means of communicating their ſituation to their family, and if they were ſufficiently induſtrious to earn a little money, and economical enough to keep it, they would infallibly be ſtripped by their maſters or by the other ſlaves, becauſe a Muſſulman thinks himſelf not bound to obſerve, in regard to a Chriſtian or a Jew, an honeſt line of conduct in which he would be aſhamed to fail towards a man of his own religion.

We

We have ſaid that the traffic for ſlaves was forbidden to the Jews and Chriſtians who inhabit TURKEY. No one is ſuffered to enter the baſar where women are expoſed to ſale, but Muſſulmans who preſent themſelves to purchaſe them. Europeans cannot be introduced there without a firman of the ſultan, which is granted only to the ambaſſadors and agents of foreign powers, when they are on the eve of quitting the Ottoman Empire. A few days before our departure we with pleaſure availed ourſelves of the firman which Citizen CARRA SAINT CYR obtained, in order to ſatisfy our curioſity in that reſpect. In company with him we ſaw the monuments eſcaped from barbariſm, time, and fire, the principal moſques, the mad-houſes, the menagerie, and the market for female ſlaves. But whether the traders, apprized of our arrival, had made them retire, or whether this was not the ſeaſon when they are moſt numerous, we found few ſlaves in the baſar, and among thoſe that we ſaw, the greater part were veiled and ſhut up in their rooms; ſo that we could not ſee them but for a moment through a window which was by the ſide of the door.

We ſtopped to contemplate three of them who ſtruck us by their beauty and the tears which they ſhed. They were tall, well made, and ſcarcely fifteen years of age; one of them, with her head and left arm reſting againſt the wall, vented ſobs which wrung us to the heart. Nothing could divert her from her profound grief: her companions, leaning the one againſt the other, were holding each other by the hand while we ſurveyed them. They caſt on us looks which, doubtleſs, expreſſed their regret at having loſt their liberty, at being torn from the arms of a too cruel father and mother; at having been ſeparated, perhaps, from thoſe with whom love and hymen were to unite their fate.

The traders, imbued with ridiculous prejudices, fear the miſchievous look of Chriſtians and Europeans: a woman cannot be ſeen by them without

being depreciated, without running the risk of being affected by their malignant influence. Besides, these female slaves, still christians, may according to these traders, fall suddenly in love with a man of their own religion, and attempt to make their escape. They likewise fear that the too great affliction into which the slaves are plunged by every thing that recalls to their mind recollections extremely dear, may occasion them to fall sick or bring on a melancholy that may affect their health.

The building has nothing remarkable, and does not correspond with the beauty of the caravansaries, which it resembles in point of form and construction, nor to that of most of the bazars of the capital. You see a suite of small naked chambers, which receive the light only by a door and a little grated window, placed on one side. It is into one of these rooms that the unfortunate creatures who belong to the same trader are crowded: there it is that each waits till fate throws her into the hands of a man young or old, robust or infirm, mild or passionate, good or bad, in order that she may become his wife or his concubine, or wait on the women of his harem.

The negresses whom commerce draws annually from ETHIOPIA and NUBIA, are brought up, as well as the white female slaves, in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the same kindness as the others; but being more particularly intended for the service of the harems, it seldom happens that they share the bed of their master. After a few years' service, the greater part of them are married to white slaves. Being both at liberty, to the husband is given wherewith to set up a little shop, or exercise a profession which may provide for their maintenance. Frequently they are kept in the house without being liberated, the wife serves, in case of necessity, as a wet-nurse to the children of her mistress, and continues her service in the harem: the husband remains about the person of his master, and performs the same service as before;

he follows him in his walks, in his expeditions, and in the journies which his trade renders neceſſary.

As for the negroes, more unfortunate, perhaps, than thoſe of the WEST-INDIA colonies, mutilated early in life, they are almoſt all employed in the care of the women of the ſultan and of thoſe belonging to the great men of the empire. True it is that ſome of them obtain a diſtinguiſhed rank, extenſive power, and conſiderable riches; but can they be happy, when they know that the method of pleaſing their maſter, is to diſpleaſe the women intruſted to their charge? Can they be happy, when they are obliged to live with women quite young, quite beautiful, from whom they never obtain a look of good-will, and whoſe aſpect inceſſantly reminds them of the idea of their impotence and nullity?

In the EAST, the women have not yet ſuſpected that the method to preſerve longer their bloom, and enjoy without interruption the faſcinating pleaſures of ſociety, was to withdraw themſelves from duties the moſt ſacred, by delivering into the hands of a hireling the precious pledges of their marriage. They find the careſſes of the infant that they nouriſh with their milk, far more ſweet, far more agreeable than the ſmile of a perfidious and corrupt world. If their mode of life is more ſimple, leſs tumultuous, if their pleaſures are leſs lively, leſs ſtriking, they are amply indemnified by the calm of the ſenſes, by the peace of mind, and by the health which they preſerve, and by that which they tranſmit to their children. In the EAST, they are ſcarcely acquainted with that multitude of diſorders occaſioned by the diſperſion of milk, thoſe lacteous indurations and ſecretions which afflict ſo many European women, and carry them off in the flower of their age.

If through any extraordinary cauſe a woman loſe her milk, and find herſelf obliged to have recourſe to a ſtrange nurſe, ſhe receives her into her houſe;

houſe, and cauſes her to be treated with the ſame reſpect and the ſame attention that ſhe herſelf receives. Whether Muſſulman or Chriſtian, it depends on this foſter-mother no longer to abandon the infant that ſhe has fed with her milk, to continue towards it her maternal care, and to receive all her life, from it or from its parents, marks of the moſt lively gratitude: it depends on her, in a word, to be incorporated in the family, and to be there conſidered and reſpected as a ſecond mother.

Through a luxury advantageous to the indigent, from which, beſides, no inconvenience reſults, moſt of the opulent mothers, in the intention of preſerving their embonpoint, of repoſing more quietly during the night, and of giving a a more abundant nouriſhment to their children, place about them a ſecond nurſe charged with the moſt laborious functions, to ſuckle them during the night, to amuſe them, and divert their attention during the day: but the mother does not, on that account, think herſelf exempted from watching over the health of her child, from feeding it with her milk, from providing for all the wants that it appears to have, and from beſtowing on it all the care that its age and weakneſs require.

Throughout the East, ſterility of women is conſidered as one of the greateſt misfortunes that can happen to them; independently of a barren woman not obtaining the conſideration which ſhe would have enjoyed as mother of a family, ſhe finds herſelf almoſt always neglected by her huſband; ſhe ſees him paſs into the arms of another woman; ſhe is obliged to ſubſcribe to the divorce which he demands, and, to complete her misfortunes, ſhe can ſcarcely ever, in ſuch a caſe, find a ſecond huſband. Beſides, ſterility preſents with it the idea of an imperfection in the organs, which humiliates her who is the object of it.

When

When the ſigns of pregnancy do not manifeſt themſelves a few months after marriage, the wife, in her impatience never fails to addreſs herſelf to matrons and to phyſicians, in order to aſk them for ſome beverage, ſome particular recipe that may facilitate and haſten the moment of conception. The former prepare peſſaries in which are contained the hotteſt and moſt irritating ſubſtances, ſuch as muſk, amber, bezoar, aloes, cardamom, ginger, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, &c. They at the ſame time cauſe moſt of theſe drugs to be taken as an opiate or mixed with aliments, at the riſk of producing ſome inflammation or ſome other diſorder more or leſs dangerous.

Unleſs the number of children be already conſiderable, or the fortune of the huſband be deranged, if the wife, ſtill young, after one or more lyings-in, find too great an interval before ſhe be pregnant, ſhe has recourſe to the ſame means, and ſhe employs the ſame drugs. The Greek women, beſides, leſs devout and more ſuperſtitious than the Muſſulman females, make offerings to the *Panayia* *, ſend a wax-taper to the church, cauſe maſſes to be ſaid, and invoke the male and female ſaints of paradiſe in whom they have moſt confidence.

The houſes of the Muſſulmans are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that the lodging of the women is always ſeparated from that of the men: the former is called *harem*, or ſacred place, and the latter *ſelamlik*, or habitation of the man. At the houſes of the great, there are two piles of building which communicate with each other by intermediate apartments, of which the huſband alone has the keys. Acceſs to the harem is ſtrictly forbidden to men; the male ſervants and ſlaves never enter it; and the male relations themſelves are never admitted, except it be on the two grand feſtivals of the year, and on the occaſion of weddings, lyings-in, or circumciſion.

* Παναγια, *all holy*; thus it is that the Greeks call the mother of Chriſt.

Commonly

Commonly the harem has no windows towards the ſtreet, or if there be any, they are lofty, and grated in ſuch a manner that one cannot ſee from without what is paſſing within. In the countries where every houſe has its terrace or flat roof, there are walls of ſeparation, which cannot be paſſed, and which prevent all communication.

We frequently experienced difficulties in the courſe of our travels, when we wiſhed to aſcend to elevated places in order to have a view of a town and judge of its extent, becauſe the inhabitants were afraid that our object was to obſerve the women who were walking in their gardens, or taking the air on the terrace of their houſes. It has frequently happened, on theſe occaſions, that Turks have fired muſket-ſhots at Europeans whoſe intentions appeared to them ſuſpicious.

The wife of a certain rank, when young, goes very little from home, becauſe it is not faſhionable for her to appear in the ſtreets although veiled, becauſe the law exempts her from going to the moſque, becauſe ſhe has in her own houſe baths which ſhe uſes at pleaſure, and becauſe ſhe is ſurrounded by female ſlaves who watch over her, and female relatives who counteract her inclinations. To pleaſe her huſband, to detain him in the harem as long as his affairs permit, to take care of her children, to occupy herſelf with her dreſs, and very little with her family, to pray at the hours preſcribed by religion, and to paſs a part of the day without doing any thing, another in ſmoking, drinking coffee, receiving female friends, relations, or women under her protection, ſuch are the duties and pleaſures of a Muſſulman woman. She ſeldom can read and ſcarcely ever write; ſhe has learnt to ſew and embroider, prepare comfits and dainties, and make ſherbet; but ſhe finds it more pleaſant to do nothing, to remain quiet on her ſopha, and roll between her fingers a chaplet of coral or agate. She conſiders it as a delightful enjoyment to hold from time to time a diſh of coffee in one hand, a pipe in the other, and

to

to carry them alternately to her mouth, at the ſame time inhaling the vapour of the one, and retaining as long as poſſible that of the other; what afterwards gratifies her the moſt, is to have it in her power to diſplay to the eyes of the women whom ſhe receives, ſome rich trinkets and a robe of great value.

A Muſſulman is very poor if he have not ſeveral ſlaves to wait on his wife, and the latter is very unſkilful if ſhe do not ſoon convert into dreſſes and trinkets the greateſt part of the huſband's fortune. This extraordinary and prepoſterous conduct, eſpecially in the mother of a family, appears to me to ariſe naturally from the laws and cuſtoms eſtabliſhed in TURKEY. It is well known that the ſovereign has the right to confiſcate, to the benefit of the imperial treaſury, the inheritance of the agents that he has employed, and that, in this caſe, the property of the wife is always reſpected. Beſides, when a divorce takes place between a married couple, the wife keeps her jewels and her wardrobe, independently of the other effects ſtipulated in the contract of marriage.

The wife takes her meals alone, or with the mother and the female relations of the huſband, who are with her in the harem. He eats with his father and the male relations who live with him, and when he is alone or cauſes himſelf to be ſerved in the harem, which frequently happens, even the wife does not eat with him; ſhe waits on him, or ſees that the ſlaves are attentive in waiting on him. The meal being finiſhed, the hands and mouth waſhed and wiped, ſhe herſelf preſents him the pipe and coffee.

When there are ſeveral wives, each has her houſehold, her table, her apartments, and her ſlaves in the ſame pile of building. It is very uncommon for a ſecond woman, or ſlave, to be lodged in another houſe; this ſcarcely happens except among the chiefs of caravans, who, obliged to live half

of the year in one town, and the other half in another, wiſh to have a wife in each of thoſe two towns.

No religious precept is more ſcrupulouſly followed; no law is more rigorouſly executed, in any religion and among any people, than ablutions and waſhings in TURKEY. Before the five prayers of the day, before and after meals, at every ſtool, whenever he has been touched by any impure body, the Muſſulman muſt purify himſelf by partial ablutions. But when he has cohabited with a woman or has experienced a ſimple pollution, he is ſubmitted to a general waſhing; and the woman, beſides, is obliged to obey this cuſtom after her lying-in and at the end of the indiſpoſitions natural to her ſex. Thence thoſe ablutions almoſt continual and thoſe frequent vapour-baths with which no one diſpenſes, of which all have made themſelves a want, and in which both ſexes find a delicious charm.

What inclines the women to wiſh for baths with the moſt lively eagerneſs, is that they there make themſelves amends for the conſtraint to which the laws and cuſtoms have ſubjected them. It is at the baths that they meet, and make appointments with each other; there it is that they ſee each other with familiarity, that they converſe without conſtraint, and give themſelves up to the ſweeteſt voluptuouſneſs. There it is that the rich women can diſplay, with the greateſt minuteneſs, their moſt ſplendid attire, and their moſt coſtly garments. There they are ſerved with pure mocha, exquiſite reſtoratives, and ſumptuous collations. There they laviſh eſſences and perfumes; and the entertainment is frequently terminated by muſic, dances, and the *ombres Chinoiſes*: but, on thoſe occaſions, the bath is ſhut to the public for the whole day.

The poor women, almoſt without any expenſe, there find pleaſures leſs noiſy indeed, but perhaps as warmly felt. Common coffee, common ſherbet,

no other perfume than tobacco, dainties which they themſelves bring, and ſome fruits of the ſeaſon: this is to reſtore the body and gratify the ſenſes. Their vanity is flattered at diſplaying a fine ſhift, clean drawers, decent clothes, necklaces, chains, and other ornaments in ſequins. In ſhort, they no longer have any thing to wiſh for when they have undergone complete depilation, when their locks are arranged, their braids plaited, their eyelids and eyebrows painted black, and the nails of their hands and feet of an orange colour yellow.

CHAPTER XIII.

Excurſion to the freſh waters.—Review of a Turkiſh army.—Origin of the revolt of Paſwan Oglou.—*Hiſtorical ſummary of the events which have taken place to the preſent day.*

Two leagues from CONSTANTINOPLE, in aſcending the ſmall river which diſcharges its waters into the head of the harbour, is an agreeable and ſolitary walk, the only one embelliſhed by art. The ſultan goes thither ſometimes in ſummer to ſpend the day with a numerous ſuite: frequently Europeans go thither on parties of pleaſure, at the ſame time, however, taking the precaution to have every thing carried that is neceſſary for them; for the Turks, not being in the habit of walking, nor of frequenting this ſpot, have not even thought of eſtabliſhing there a coffee-houſe.

On quitting the harbour, you leave behind you CONSTANTINOPLE; you ſee on the left the village of AIJUB, where the ſultana-mother has juſt cauſed a moſque and a ſepulchral chapel to be built in order to repoſe in it after her death: you perceive on the right a Turkiſh coffee-houſe, in front of which is a place ſhaded by fine trees, under which Turkiſh and Armenian women ſometimes ſeat themſelves, to drink coffee, and ſmoke their pipe. You enter into a fertile valley, confined between two ſchiſtoſe hills, naked and uncultivated; the river which flows in the middle, is broad, deep, and tranquil at its mouth; it becomes narrow in proportion as you advance. All the ſurface of this valley conſiſts of natural meadows, on which herds of oxen graze during the whole year.

You

You ſoon arrive in front of the kioſk of the great equerry *Buyuk-imbrohor*, ſituated on the left bank of the river: you paſs under a wooden bridge erected there for communications, and you arrive by the ſide of the palace of the Grand Signior. Beyond this palace, built with ſome degree of elegance, the river is received into a broad canal, whence it falls in caſcades on ſteps of white marble: it forms various ſheets of water, and afterwards returns to its bed. Some fine trees ſhade this place, worthy of figuring beſide the moſt beautiful gardens of EUROPE. One only regrets that the two hills which bound the valley, are not cultivated, and adorned with country-houſes; they would add to the embelliſhment of this ſpot, if they preſented, in the form of an amphitheatre, the vine, various fruit-trees, and ſome fields laid down in corn.

On the 20th of Germinal year VI, (9th of April 1798,) we went with the French legation and different citizens, to ſee in this valley the filing off of the remainder of the army which ſultan SELIM was ſending againſt PASWAN OGLOU, ayam of WIDIN, for a long time paſt in rebellion againſt the PORTE. Already had fifteen or twenty thouſand Aſiatic troops continued their route for ADRIANOPLE, the general rendezvous of the army. There ſtill remained from five to ſix thouſand men encamped at OK-MAÏDAM, who were to file off before the ſultan. The captain-pacha, appointed ſeraſkier or general of the army, was to be admitted to kiſs the feet of his highneſs, and receive the peliſſe of honour. We had a curioſity to ſee this ceremony, and to learn at the ſame time the order and diſpoſition of a Turkiſh army.

At eight o'clock in the morning, we went to embark at TOP-HANA: the day was fine; we enjoyed the ſight always more beautiful, always more enchanting, preſented, on one ſide, by the ſeraglio, and on the other, by GALATA, PERA, and the different villages which are confounded with the foreſt

of

of cypreſſes: we ranged along the numerous tiers of merchant-veſſels anchored off GALATA; we ſaw, as we paſſed, the arſenal and the ſhips of the navy; we counted twenty ſail of the line, fourteen or fifteen of which were in good condition, and as many frigates or ſloops of war: we ſtopped for a moment to view LAMBRO's flotilla, which the French frigate the *MODESTE*, commanded by Captain VENEL, had deſtroyed in 1792. It took us near an hour to arrive at the head of the harbour and enter the river which we have before mentioned.

We quitted our caïques in front of the houſe of the great equerry. Already were the hills covered with ſpectators: a part of the ſultan's houſehold was arrived, and the pages were exerciſing themſelves in the meadow, in throwing the djerid. The army had advanced towards the declivity of the hill, and was now waiting only for the order of departure. All the colours were diſplayed, and martial muſic was heard from time to time.

At ten o'clock, arrived Sultan SELIM in a ſuperb caïque, and placed himſelf in the kioſk of his equerry: we were within twenty paces of him, under the ſhade of an aſh, on the oppoſite bank of the river. A moment after, the order was given, and the troops filed off. They deſcended by the hill of the left bank of the river, paſſed over a wooden bridge at a little diſtance from the kioſk, followed the road made at the foot of the hill on the right bank, and went to encamp for three days two leagues from this place, in the environs of a farm known by the name of DAOUT-PACHA.

We ſaw paſs in ſucceſſion companies of cavalry of *délis*, of *zaïms*, of *timariots*, of *ſélictars*, and of *ſpahis*, armed with a muſket, two piſtols, and a ſabre. After them came a company of horſemen armed with lances: like thoſe who went firſt, they had their ſabre and their piſtols. Each company was preceded by one or two colours, and followed by a great number of

ſacas

facas or water-carriers. The horſes on which theſe ſacas were mounted, had two large leather-bottles full of water, for the wants of the company.

What had a rather bad effect among this choſen troop, was that the muſkets were of different form and calibre: the horſemen were irregularly clothed: many among them were in rags and ill mounted, while ſome others were better dreſſed, better mounted, and better armed. The officers were diſtinguiſhed by the beauty of their horſes, by the richneſs of the trappings, and by the footmen who preceded them.

The company of flying artillery in uniform, tolerably well mounted, having with it forty pieces of cannon, made a more warlike appearance: it was compoſed of young men ſtrong and vigorous: their look, their ſkill, and their manœuvres did honour to the French officers who inſtructed them.

After theſe we ſaw paſs ſome other troops of cavalry, and then eighty flags of different colours. There remained all the houſehold of the general, two European carriages, and two litters, when Hussein-pacha appeared on horſe-back, followed by two boſtangees and a tchocadar on foot: he croſſed the meadow, and, having arrived within a little diſtance of the kioſk, he alighted: he was immediately ſurrounded by the pages of the ſultan and conducted to the audience-chamber. He approached his highneſs, kiſſed the ſkirt of his garment, and placed himſelf at a little diſtance from him, on his knees, ſeated on his heels, with his hands on his thighs, concealed by the large ſleeves of his robe. All the pages left the hall: there remained only three mutes to wait. The conference laſted half an hour; after which Hussein again kiſſed the ſkirt of his highneſs's robe, and was clothed with a ſuperb peliſſe by ſome pages who entered for that purpoſe.

Hussein

Hussein came down from the kiosk, remounted his horse, returned by a semicircle, and presented himself before the sultan, leant down to the stirrup of the right foot, and went away, accompanied by the three persons with whom he had come.

The troops had halted during this conference; but the military music had not ceased to play: it was composed of trumpets, tymbals, tymbalons, and drums different from those of Europe.

The household of the pacha filed off in good order: it was remarkable for the beauty of the horses, the richness of the trappings, and the dress of the horsemen: we saw pass his tchiaoux, his tchocadars, his secretaries and clerks, a troop of galiondgis, and, lastly, his carriages and litters. Three horsemen carried, among the colours, on a sort of pike, three horses' tails which designated his rank. The pacha next made his appearance, followed by the principal officers of his household and by some general officers belonging to his army: a numerous company of sacas closed this march.

We remarked in all the companies, people tolerably well mounted, whose cap of a conical form, was covered on the outside with tin and little bells. We were informed that their function is to gallop into the ranks in order to make the soldiers dress, to excite them to battle, and to stop the runaways.

In Europe, people have spoken too variously of Paswan Oglou, and have been too little acquainted with the origin of his revolt, for us to pass over in silence the accounts which we have collected respecting him.

Oglou, in Turkish, signifies son: Paswan Oglou, that is, son of Paswan. The father was ayam or notable of Widin: he was rich, and enjoyed great consideration among his fellow citizens. He commanded a troop of

of volunteers in the laſt war of the Turks againſt the Ruſſians and Germans. It is thought that his reputation and above all his riches, induced the grand viſir, then ſeraſkier of the army, to cauſe him to be apprehended, and his head to be cut off.

PASWAN OGLOU was apprehended with his father, and detained for ſome time, after which he obtained his liberty and a ſlender part of the property which he ought to have poſſeſſed. He retired to WIDIN, meditating ſignal vengeance, not only for the death of his father, but alſo for the injuſtice committed in regard to himſelf. It was not long before an opportunity preſented itſelf, and like a man ſtill more able than angry, he found means to derive from events the purpoſe moſt ſuitable to his projects.

Under the reigns of MUSTAPHA III. and ABDUL HAMID, companies of gunners and bombardiers had been formed at CONSTANTINOPLE: ſome batteries had been erected at the entrance of the HELLESPONT and of the BOSPHORUS: in the arſenal, a ſchool of navigation had been eſtabliſhed by the ſide of that for mathematics; the government turned their thoughts towards the navy, they wiſhed, in a word, to repair the loſſes occaſioned by the ſucceſſive defeats of the Ottoman armies; but they were very far from having attained that object when SELIM III. aſcended the throne. Extremely alive to the loſs of the CRIMEA, one of the granaries of CONSTANTINOPLE; painfully affected to ſee himſelf threatened in the very heart of the capital, the firſt movement of SELIM was to give a new impulſe to thoſe eſtabliſhments; his firſt looks were directed towards the navy; his moſt ardent wiſhes were to organize by degrees an army in imitation of that of his enemies; and leſs jealous of his authority, than of the proſperity of his dominions and of the ſucceſs of his arms, he created a council compoſed of twelve perſons capable of enlightening and ſeconding his beneficent views. He at

the ſame time eſtabliſhed an impoſt the produce of which he appropriated to the new military eſtabliſhments.

The ſuperiority of the European arms and the inappreciable advantage reſulting from tactics, were acknowledged by a few Muſſulmans, whom genius and education raiſed above prejudices; but it was difficult to ſtifle the clamours of a great number of perſons to whom theſe projects gave offence: it was difficult to get them adopted by an ignorant people who conſider as criminal the innovations which are tranſmitted them by thoſe whom they call infidels: it was much more difficult, perhaps, to prevent the effect of corruptive gold on the greateſt perſonages of the empire.

The janizaries had loſt that ancient energy which had ſo long rendered them formidable: there was no longer ſeen among them thoſe boſtangees inured to the labours of the earth, capable of braving the inclemency of the ſeaſons; thoſe ſlaves, thoſe children of tribute, who, neither knowing their parents nor their country, ſerved with enthuſiaſm and zeal the religion which they had embraced, and the maſter who paid them. At this day, mutinous and undiſciplined, without energy and without courage, more formidable to the authority of the ſovereign than to the enemies of the State, to replace them by an intelligent and diſciplined ſtanding army, prefented incalculable advantages. The ſultan, from that moment, would have been leſs expoſed to the agitations and movements of an irritated populace; he would have been inceſſantly able to diſpoſe of his forces, to carry them to the frontiers in order to repel the enemy, or into the interior to apprehend a rebel, ſubdue a revolted province, or deſtroy an army of robbers; he could augment his forces, or reduce them according to the exigencies of the State.

The

The janizaries, extremely numerous in the capital, although debaſed, merited, nevertheleſs, a little reſpect. An inſurrection on their part would have occaſioned the miſcarriage of the projects wiſely conceived: it was prudent to pay them and to make uſe of them, till the new troops ſhould be organized. As for thoſe of the provinces, ſcattered over the towns and the country-places, they could offer only a reſiſtance eaſy to be overcome; however, in order neither to indiſpoſe the one nor the other, it was reſolved to attack at firſt none but the yamags: thus it is that are called on the frontier of GERMANY, the new comers or the new companies formed for the garriſon of the towns and the duty of the fortreſſes, in the countries newly conquered.

BELGRADE was, in conſequence, the firſt town where a trial was made to aboliſh the formidable corps of janizaries; but the yamags revolted, took up arms, and threatened the life of the pacha. The latter ſucceeded in gaining over the officers and in diſperſing a corps of troops too ill organized to be able to reſiſt him for any length of time. The government ſucceſſively came to the other frontier towns of GERMANY: every where they experienced the ſame reſiſtance; but every where authority triumphed. At WIDIN, the yamags were more fortunate; PASWAN OGLOU, in his capacity of ayam, which he had recently obtained, marched at their head againſt the pacha, cut him in pieces, and obliged him to abandon the town.

Theſe firſt ſucceſſes gave a great idea of the military talents of PASWAN, and cauſed him to be conſidered as a man entirely devoted to the intereſts of the people. He had no great difficulty in engaging all the inhabitants of WIDIN in his party, and in drawing about him a great number of malcontents, by flattering them, not only with preventing the reforms which the PORTE wiſhed to make, but with oppoſing the collection of the new tax on proviſions, wool, cotton, &c. which SELIM had juſt eſtabliſhed, and the pro-

duce of which he had appropriated, as I have before ſaid, to the expenſes rendered neceſſary by the new corps of gunners, bombardiers, and matroſſes, whoſe number had juſt been augmented.

What muſt neceſſarily have irritated the people, was to ſee the pacha become *muhaſſil* or farmer of the new tax, for his province, in conſideration of a pretty conſiderable ſum which he had engaged to remit annually to the PORTE, while before the eſtabliſhment of this tax, not only the PORTE drew nothing from WIDIN, but ſent the money neceſſary for the pay of the yamags and the repairs of the fortifications.

The revenues of WIDIN not being ſufficient for the payment of the army, which was every day increaſing, PASWAN ſent detachments into the neighbouring provinces, took poſſeſſion of the money belonging to the imperial treaſury, levied taxes, ſummoned the princes of WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA to furniſh him with proviſions, military ſtores, and a ſum of money ſomewhat conſiderable, under pain of having their country invaded. The latter addreſſed themſelves to the PORTE, which, according to its cuſtom of temporizing and waiting for circumſtances, ſent them orders privately to yield, for the moment, to neceſſity.

The Greeks form the major part of the population of European TURKEY: it was of importance to PASWAN to draw them to his party, by conciliating their eſteem and inſpiring them with the greateſt confidence. For this purpoſe he put in force the ordinances of SOLIMAN I, altered or changed by the ſultans his ſucceſſors; he gave them hopes of alleviating their ſituation, promiſed them the free exerciſe of their religion, and the abolition of that infamous diſtinction of *rayas:* at the ſame time he took for his motto, *Liberty and Juſtice;* magic words, capable of electrifying men the moſt full of apathy, and of leading to devotedneſs and enthuſiaſm a people who groan under the moſt cruel tyranny.

The

The conduct of PASWAN muſt neceſſarily have produced the effect which he expected from it. Throughout the whole empire, the janizaries conſidered him only as a man armed for defending their intereſts, and oppoſing the enterpriſes of the ſultan and his council: the Greeks regarded him as their approaching deliverer: all offered up vows for the ſucceſs of his arms, and in the mean time the PORTE heſitated as to the courſe which it had to follow. The divan aſſembled ſeveral times for this object, without coming to any determination: a few members, among whom was diſtinguiſhed the captain-pacha, were of opinion to oppoſe to PASWAN a force capable of ſtopping his progreſs, puniſhing his audacity, and giving an example of ſeverity which might awe the ambitious who ſhould be tempted to imitate him; but the majority ſtrongly inſiſted on offering PASWAN his pardon and the reſtitution of the property confiſcated from his father, if he would lay down his arms and diſband his army.

When a government reſolves to treat with a rebellious ſubject, it gives the meaſure of its weakneſs or of its folly. From that time the ambitious conceive the boldeſt projects, and flatter themſelves that their enterpriſes will be crowned with ſucceſs. Such was the effect that the propoſals of the divan muſt have produced on PASWAN; but this man was too ſkilful to irritate the PORTE by a formal refuſal, and expoſe the fate of his army by too precipitate a meaſure: beſides, he wanted to gain time and amaſs riches for the ſucceſs of his projects. He did not, perhaps, rely ſufficiently on the favourable diſpoſitions of all the janizaries of the empire. He contented himſelf, for the moment, with demanding that every thing ſhould remain at WIDIN on the ancient footing, that the new tax ſhould not be eſtabliſhed there, and that the janizaries ſhould be maintained in their rights. Sultan SELIM acceded to theſe diſgraceful conditions, and ſent to WIDIN a pacha provided with a firman to that effect. The pacha was received and inſtalled with the cuſtomary ceremonies; but, too weak to ſtruggle againſt a man who had an

army

army at his command, he was unable to obtain any ſort of authority. PASWAN preſerved his influence and power, and continued, in the name of the pacha, to govern and adminiſter the town and the province.

PASWAN was too well acquainted with the wily policy of the PORTE, to fall aſleep in perfect ſecurity: he was perſuaded that it would employ ſooner or later its ordinary means, ſteel or poiſon, in order to get rid of a man who might ſtill perplex it, who had dared to paralyze its meaſures, and who exerciſed in WIDIN an illegal authority. He neglected nothing to procure protectors and partiſans among the great perſonages of the capital: he continued to flatter the people and to make them hope for reforms uſeful and ardently wiſhed for, and anxious to obtain, in the preſent circumſtances, a legitimate power, he warmly ſolicited the government of WIDIN, together with the dignity of pacha with three tails.

Although the PORTE had betrayed great weakneſs in pardoning a rebellious ſubject, and ſubſcribing to the conditions which he had dictated, it could never bring itſelf to grant him the dignity which he requeſted, and, by that means, contribute to his elevation. It endeavoured to gain time waiting for ſome fortunate circumſtance which might rid it of a man whom it conſidered as no leſs dangerous than culpable. It amuſed him as long as it could, by promiſes which it was its intention never to make good. It did not conceal from itſelf that this ambitious man ſolicited the government of WIDIN only in order to render himſelf afterwards independent, and to remove a pacha whoſe preſence was irkſome to him, and who might, from one moment to another, ſeize on authority and puniſh him for his crimes.

When PASWAN perceived that he had nothing to hope for from the PORTE, he again raiſed the ſtandard of revolt: he drove away the pacha, and recommenced his incurſions into the neighbouring provinces.

His

His generals, more warlike than politic, wiſhed to prevail on him to take poſſeſſion of WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA, to fortify the principal towns ſituated on the DANUBE, and thence brave all the efforts of the Ottoman Empire. PASWAN knew the courts of VIENNA and PETERSBURG: he was perſuaded that they would favour, that they would even ſecond his enterpriſes in the interior; but that they would unite, on the contrary, with the PORTE, to prevent him from eſtabliſhing himſelf beyond the DANUBE, and forming a ſtate independent of thoſe two principalities.

A more extenſive field of glory and proſperity offered itſelf to PASWAN; this was to march ſtraight to the capital, to ſeize boldly on the throne, to diſpoſe of the fate of SELIM, to ſacrifice his enemies to the manes of his father, and to his own ſafety; to unite under the ſame laws, nations ſeparated by religious fanaticiſm; to give to commerce and induſtry a new impulſe; to give life to agriculture; to create a formidable navy; in ſhort, to fix the government on a ſolid baſis, by giving it that harmony, that general connexion in which it is defective.

Had the boldneſs of this man equalled his prudence; had his mind been as active as his genius was fertile; had he had, for attack, the talents which he has diſplayed for defence, it is not to be doubted that the throne of SELIM would have paſſed into other hands. Already had the janizaries refuſed to march; already did the immenſe number of inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE hold out their arms to him whom they conſidered as their deliverer, as the defender of their rights: the majority of the great were devoted to his intereſts, and the people, as is well known, always ſeduced by the preſtiges which ſurround the great man, ſecond his projects without inquiry, and promote without miſtruſt all his enterpriſes.

PASWAN

PASWAN hesitated as to the course which he had to follow: the obstacles which he considered appeared to him too great perhaps: he doubted of success; he resolved to wait in WIDIN for all the forces which the PORTE chose to employ against him, persuaded that the soldier would draw up under his colours, or find death at the foot of the walls and in the marshes with which the town is surrounded.

In the mean time, the PORTE, which could no longer conceal from itself the danger arising from this rebel being supported by public opinion, commanded the different pachas of European TURKEY, to collect all the forces which they had at their disposal, in order to go and fight him, force him in his last entrenchments, seize on his person, cut off his head, and send it to CONSTANTINOPLE. It at the same time ordered ALLO, pacha or beyler-bey of CUTAYED, a distinguished warrior, to come and give battle to PASWAN with all the forces of his province. The frontier fortresses of GERMANY were provisioned, and intrusted to pachas or governors on whose fidelity and bravery the government thought that a reliance might be placed.

These different corps of troops, to the number of forty or fifty thousand men, approached the provinces occupied by the generals of PASWAN: they at first obtained some advantages, among others that of surrounding the division commanded by SÉREKCHOL OGLOU, of obliging him to enter VARNA, of cutting him in pieces, and of sending to the PORTE the heads of the general and of his principal officers.

This success, of little importance, was immediately repaired by that which the other generals obtained, on all sides, over the united pachas. BELGRADE, that bulwark of the empire, was threatened; ORSOVA, SILISTRIA, KERSOVA, almost all the towns situated on the DANUBE, were soon in the power of PAS-

WAN, who, from the heart of WIDIN, whence he never iſſued, directed the march of his warriors, and almoſt always fixed victory under his colours.

What, no doubt, is very deſerving of remark, is that PASWAN's army was not weakened by the different battles which it fought: the number of his ſoldiers increaſed according to his wants, while that of the pachas was ſtill more weakened by deſertion than by the ſword of the enemy. The janizary, as I had before mentioned, regarded PASWAN's cauſe as his own, and the army of the latter, in whoſe favour victory declared, better fed and more regularly paid, every day attracted to it a great number of malcontents.

The prince of WALLACHIA, compelled to pay a heavy contribution in money, and to furniſh proviſions and warlike ſtores to PASWAN, incurred the diſgrace of SELIM. He was depoſed, recalled to CONSTANTINOPLE, and replaced by KHANGERLI, drogueman to the captain-pacha, an able, intriguing man, devoured by ambition, ſtrongly ſuſpected of favouring in ſecret the projects of the natural enemies of the Ottoman Empire, and of holding out his hand to their corrupting gold.

The PORTE, undoubtedly, did not expect that PASWAN, abandoned to his own ſtrength, was in a condition to oppoſe an army capable of reſiſting that of the pachas united. It did not imagine above all that he had at his diſpoſal the gold that was neceſſary for him to maintain it. It was ſenſibly alarmed at his ſucceſſes, and very uneaſy reſpecting the fate of BELGRADE, of which the rebel ſeemed to wiſh to make himſelf maſter. It likewiſe was afraid that he would croſs Mount HÆMUS, and come to eſtabliſh himſelf at ADRIANOPLE, whence he might have moleſted the capital. It took the reſolution of diſplaying againſt him very conſiderable forces, in order to finiſh quickly an unfortunate war which was threatening the empire with a general overthrow, and exhauſting unſeaſonably the finances of the State. In Nivôſe, year VI.

(1798), it convoked the principal officers belonging to the janizaries of CONSTANTINOPLE, in order to found them respecting the intention which it had to march their corps * against PASWAN. The latter appeared not disposed to second the views of the sultan; they represented that the soldiers said loudly that they would never make war against a Mussulman, who had, according to them, committed no other fault than that of wishing to prevent an attack from being made on their rights, and from there being introduced into the empire of the true believers, the customs of the infidels, enemies of their god and of their prophet.

At one moment it was thought that the janizary-aga would pay with his head the ill-will of the soldiers; but SELIM contented himself with removing him from the capital for a few days, and sending him to GALLIPOLI. He came and resumed his functions, when the government were assured that his removal could not, in any way, change the peaceable dispositions of the janizaries and of their officers.

At the same time an order was dispatched to the pachas and governors of the provinces of the empire, for them to furnish different corps of troops, and cause them to march on the first notice that they should receive. The grand visir, on whom the command of the army had devolved, being old and infirm, SELIM appointed in his place the captain-pacha, as if the zeal and good-will of his High Admiral could, in this case, make amends for the knowledge and experience which he wanted. HUSSEIN had never been engaged in war, either by sea or by land; how then could he contend, with advantage, against a man who had set at nought the bravery and military talents of the old generals that he had had to combat.

* The number of janizaries in CONSTANTINOPLE is reckoned to be upwards of fifty thousand.

It

It is ſaid that it was the very enemies of the captain-pacha who cauſed him to be appointed ſeraſkier of the army, as well to remove him from the capital, as to plan for him an affair of the higheſt importance, in which they hoped that he would miſcarry.

HUSSEIN could not refuſe the command of the army without diſpleaſing the ſultan, without being taxed with cowardice, without giving a hold to the malignity of the public. He hoped beſides, if he obtained impoſing forces, to deſtroy eaſily a rebel againſt whom none but half-meaſures had hitherto been taken, againſt whom none but inconſiderable forces had been employed. As artful as his enemies were perfidious, he preſented himſelf to SELIM, proſtrated himſelf at his feet, and ſaid to him: "Lord, my life is yours; if "you think me capable of leading your land-forces as I have hitherto led thoſe "of the ſea, command: I am ready to obey you; I will march againſt the "rebel; I will bring you his head, or I will loſe my own; but PASWAN's party "is numerous and powerful; his creatures, his friends are ſpread every "where; they will fetter my operations if I am not inveſted with great autho-"rity; they will make my enterpriſes miſcarry, if I have not conſiderable "forces and all the money neceſſary for inſuring the ſubſiſtence of the army, "and for detaching, if it be needful, from the rebel party the generals, to "whoſe talents and courage PASWAN owes the ſucceſſes which he has obtained "againſt your arms."

Selim granted all the demands of the pacha, and inveſted him with great power; he gave orders that all the corps of troops, as well of EUROPE as of ASIA, which could be raiſed, ſhould join their colours in the early part of the ſpring; and nothing was ſpared for the ſucceſs of this enterprize.

From that time, the greateſt activity was exerted, in the conſtruction and equipment of fifteen gun-boats, carrying a 24 or an 18 pounder in the bow,

and one or two ſmall cannons on each ſide; they were intended for aſcending the DANUBE in order to ſecond by water the attack which was meditated by land againſt WIDIN. Different craft were equipped for the conveyance of the artillery and ſtores neceſſary for the ſiege, as well as for the proviſions for the troops.

ADRIANOPLE was the general rendezvous of the troops of the ſouthern part of TURKEY in EUROPE and of thoſe in ASIA. A part of the former filed off through CONSTANTINOPLE; a part paſſed through GALLIPOLI. The whole army collected was eſtimated at one hundred thouſand combatants.

HUSSEIN, general in chief, had a corps of from twelve to fifteen thouſand Aſiatics, and another compoſed of ſeven or eight thouſand men, topchis, galiondgis, and volunteers, raiſed in CONSTANTINOPLE and in the environs.

ALLO, pacha of CUTAYED, was at the head of thirty thouſand Aſiatics, delis, ſpahis, janizaries, and volunteers.

ALI, pacha of YANINA in ALBANIA, commanded ten or twelve thouſand Albanians and five or ſix thouſand janizaries.

MUSTAPHA, pacha of BOSNIA, had a corps of five or ſix thouſand men, as well infantry as cavalry.

ISMAEL, bey of SERES in UPPER MACEDONIA, brought five or ſix thouſand ſpahis.

Orders were alſo given for the marching of detachments taken from SALONICA, PHILOPOPOLIS, SOPHIA, and ſome other towns of European TURKEY.

It

It was thefe forces, capable of fubduing an empire, that HUSSEIN marched to deftroy a rebel, and lay fiege to a revolted town.

The Turkifh government muft naturally have expected that PASWAN, on his fide, would neglect nothing for reinforcing his army, and putting it on a refpectable footing. They prefumed that he would come and wait for the captain-pacha at the defiles of Mount HÆMUS, in order to difpute with him thofe difficult paffes, and attempt to deftroy an army which the firft obftacles might difcourage and put to the rout. They were very much furprifed to fee him, on the contrary, difband a great part of his troops, abandon the towns of which he had made himfelf mafter, and fhut himfelf in WIDIN with twelve thoufand chofen men, on whofe fidelity and bravery he could rely. He had had time to collect provifions and warlike ftores in a quantity fufficiently great to fuftain a fiege for upwards of two fucceffive years, without putting the inhabitants to too great ftraits. He had, befides, a flotilla which rendered him mafter of the courfe of the DANUBE, and which, in cafe of need, was to facilitate the re-victualling of the place. This artillery was under the direction of fome Polifh engineers, who alfo drew his plans of defence.

The imperial army repaired without obftacle to the vicinity of WIDIN: all the corps of troops were affembled there before the end of Prairial: the flotilla and the gun-boats arrived at the fame time; the provifions and military ftores were in great abundance; the captain-pacha was in want of nothing but men capable of directing a fiege, and foldiers better difpofed for fupporting the caufe for which they were going to fight.

After having reconnoitred the environs of the town, after having affigned to the different chiefs the pofts which they were to occupy, or having made all the difpofitions which he judged neceffary for the fiege, HUSSEIN fummoned PASWAN to lay down his arms, promifing him his life, liberty, and a diftinguifhed

tinguiſhed rank if he would ſpare Muſſulman blood. "In vain wilt thou "oppoſe to me," ſaid he to him, "a momentary reſiſtance; I have a hundred "thouſand men with me; a hundred thouſand others would come to their "aſſiſtance, were it neceſſary: acknowledge thy errors; proſtrate thyſelf "before the majeſty of the imperial throne, and deliver up to me thy town "and thy army." PASWAN received the envoy of the pacha on the moſt lofty terrace of his palace, whence he was obſerving with a glaſs the movements of the enemy; and with that diſdain which the idea of the ſuperiority of one's ſtrength and talents naturally produces: "Go and tell thy maſter," replied he, "that it depended on me to have a hundred thouſand men to op-"poſe to him; I preferred conquering him with ten."

HUSSEIN having no hope of being able to bring back PASWAN to his duties, reſolved to puſh the ſiege with the greateſt vigour: preſently he thought himſelf in a condition to make a general attack on the town, and, by this means, to make himſelf maſter of an iſland ſituated on the DANUBE, facing WIDIN; but he was every where repulſed with conſiderable loſs: the town was very well defended; and the iſland, on which it was of importance to eſtabliſh himſelf, had been ſo fortified that all the efforts of the pacha could make no impreſſion on it: his flotilla was beat off by that of PASWAN, by the fire of the place, and by the batteries of the iſland. His gun-boats having too imprudently expoſed themſelves, ſuffered conſiderably; ſome of them ſunk and the others were no longer in a ſituation to ſecond in the ſequel the different attacks which took place.

The town, almoſt entirely ſurrounded by marſhes, was difficult of approach: the works neceſſary for the ſucceſs of the ſiege were ill executed, and worſe conceived; ſorties, made opportunely, deſtroyed them, or retarded their progreſs. Already had two general attacks been very unfortunate: a great loſs of men had been ſuſtained in the fruitleſs attempt of the capture of the

 iſland;

iſland; the ſiege was drawing on to a great length; the ſeaſon was advancing; the army was diminiſhing conſiderably by ſickneſs, by deſertion, and by the fire of the beſieged. All theſe conſiderations induced the captain-pacha to make a final effort, and employ at once every means that he had remaining.

The army was divided into three corps: ALLO took the command of the firſt; ALI, that of the ſecond; HUSSEIN reſerved to himſelf the third: he ordered the firſt two to proceed during the night by different roads, to the place aſſigned for the attack; but through a miſtake, very culpable no doubt, one of the diviſions, at the break of day, fired on the other, taking it for an enemy's corps which had ſallied from the place: the miſtake had been perceived while the battle was ſtill going on, becauſe the general who had ſtood ſeveral diſcharges, was ſo incenſed with anger, that he ordered the other corps to be fired on, as if it had been one belonging to the enemy. The ſoldier partook of the indignation of the general, and the battle did not end till the third diviſion had advanced, fallen ſword in hand on the combatants, and ſeparated them in ſpite of themſelves. Diſcontent became ſo great, miſunderſtanding was ſo general, and deſertion ſo conſiderable, that the captain-pacha thought proper to raiſe the ſiege, retire, and wait from time and circumſtances for that which his arms had not been able to obtain.

As ſoon as HUSSEIN had retired, P SWAN recalled the ſoldiers that he had diſbanded; he a ſecond time made himſelf maſter of the places which he had evacuated, and again threatened the north of the empire. After various deliberations of the council, the PORTE determined to offer the rebel whom it could not deſtroy, his pardon, the government of WIDIN, and the dignity of pacha with three tails; and as, in theſe circumſtances, deſpotiſm required a victim, the prince of WALLACHIA was ſacrificed to the reſentment of HUSSEIN, and his head brought to CONSTANTINOPLE in Ventôſe, year VII. (1799.)

CHAPTER

CHAPTER XIV.

Position and temperature of Constantinople.—*Construction of the houses.—Use of the tandour and of pelisses.—Fires.—Dogs and vultures.*

If Constantinople leaves scarcely any thing to be wished for as to the natural beauty of its situation and that of its environs, the fertility and the variety of its territory, the extent, the commodiousness, and the safety of its harbour, and the facility with which it is supplied with provisions, it has also the advantage of enjoying a very mild temperature, a beautiful sky, and a very healthful climate. Situated in the latitude of 41 degrees 1 minute north, the heats of summer are there tempered by a north north-east wind which blows regularly from the Black Sea during the day; and the cold, in winter, is never excessive, because this same wind, the most cold and most frequent of all, loses much of its sharpness in passing over almost the whole length of that sea.

The winds are variable in winter, and blow from all points; but it seldom happens that the easterly wind does not soon veer to the north-east, and the westerly wind come round to the south-west or south. Rains are frequent, and the sky is almost always cloudy in that season, from the winds which blow from the Black Sea, while it is generally serene from those which come from the Propontis and the Archipelago. I have, nevertheless, seen it rain indifferently with northerly and southerly winds; but, in the latter case, the clouds are detained and condensed by a north wind which reigns over the Black Sea. It is not uncommon, in winter, to have, for fifteen or twenty days successively, with a light southerly wind, a very beautiful sky and a very mild temperature.

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The north-weſt wind blows, in general, only after a heavy rain. The ſky is clear during its continuance, and the cold is moderate; but it does not hold long in that quarter: it is ſometimes the precurſor of the ſoutherly wind, and not unfrequently it ſhifts to the north and north-eaſt.

It ſeldom freezes in open day, and the thermometer ſcarcely ever falls, during the night, more than two or three degrees below the freezing point. There are years when ſnow is frequent; but generally it melts in falling, and ſeldom remains ſeveral days together, in the environs of the city, without melting and diſappearing entirely. It is related, however, that the cold has been ſufficiently ſharp to freeze the water at the head of the harbour, that the ſnow has been ſeen to fall to a foot in depth, and remain unthawed ſeveral days; and what is more extraordinary, under CONSTANTINE COPRONYMUS, the BOSPHORUS froze to ſuch a degree that it was croſſed on foot: under ARCADIUS, the BLACK SEA remained frozen for twenty days; when the ice broke up, pieces of a conſiderable ſize were ſeen floating before CONSTANTINOPLE.

In the ſpring, the winds are likewiſe variable and the cold very moderate; the rains are commonly abundant in Germinal and even in Floréal, and the heats are not felt till Meſſidor. At the end of Pluviôſe, year VI. (1798), the buds of the trees expanded rather quickly; peach and apricot trees had been in flower for ſome days, and almond-trees already ſhewed their fruits.

In Meſſidor, the wind fixes at north, and it ſeldom happens that, during the three ſummer months, it blows from the ſouth quarter. The ſky is always clear in this ſeaſon, and rains are extremely uncommon. Vegetation is kept up by the dews, tolerably copious in ſummer, on account of the vicinity of the two ſeas, and becauſe the ſoil, though uncultivated in ſeveral places,

is, nevertheleſs, covered with trees, ſhrubs, and plants which contribute to the coolneſs and humidity of the nights. At the end of Fructidor, the winds never fail to become again variable, and then it is that the veſſels riding in the HELLESPONT prepare to aſcend the channel, and to take advantage of the firſt ſoutherly wind.

It ſometimes happens in Meſſidor, and more commonly at the beginning and in the middle of Fructidor, that the wind blows for two or three days from the ſouth quarter, and that the heat is ſenſibly felt. On the 7th, 8th, and 9th of Fructidor, (24th, 25th, and 26th of Auguſt,) I ſaw REAUMUR's thermometer riſe to 27 degrees, while it is generally, during the ſtrongeſt heat of the day, only at 23 and 24.

The autumn is generally very fine: it rains for a few days and repeatedly, before and after the equinox, after which the weather is fine, the ſky is clear and ſerene for a fortnight, a month, and even more, and the colds do not begin to be felt till Nivôſe. TOTT has obſerved that the ſoutherly wind, at the beginning of the autumn, was ſomewhat cold, becauſe it paſſed over the ſnow of Mount OLYMPUS. We made the ſame remark, and we ſaw that, even in winter, this wind was conſtantly colder the firſt day that it blew, than the ſecond and third; but, in general, this wind ſhifts to the ſouth ſouth-weſt, and follows the direction of the Gulf of SAROS, and of the HELLESPONT. It is known by the modern Greeks under the name of *LODOS*; it is always more mild in winter than the ſoutherly wind, and the ſky is always more ſerene and more clear.

It is not uncommon for the wind to blow from the northern quarter over the BOSPHORUS and the PROPONTIS, while it blows from the ſouth quarter over the ARCHIPELAGO and the HELLESPONT. We have frequently been witneſſes of it during the ſtay which we made in the DARDANELLES;

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and when we returned from EGYPT in Meſſidor year III. (1795) the ſouth-weſt wind carried us thrice beyond the point of NAGARA, and thrice we found beyond it the north wind which prevented us from advancing, and obliged us to return to our anchorage. The third time we had a great deal of difficulty to reach a cove, half a league from a village called *GALATA*, where we remained for three days.

It is in this part of the HELLESPONT compriſed between the point of NAGARA and GALLIPOLI, that the ſouth wind, on the one ſide, and the north wind, on the other, ſometimes meet and ceaſe to blow: there is not a ſeaman who muſt not have made this remark, and have ſeen ſeveral times, in winter, the ſky foggy or ſtormy towards the BLACK SEA, while it was ſerene towards the ARCHIPELAGO.

At the end of Nivôſe and in Pluviôſe, the north wind is ſometimes felt in the PROPONTIS, and on the ARCHIPELAGO, with ſuch violence, that veſſels which are at ſea, run the greateſt danger if they do not *bear up* immediately and gain a harbour. We were informed that ſeveral European ſhips which had ſailed with fine weather from CONSTANTINOPLE in Nivôſe, the year before our arrival in the LEVANT, had been loſt in the Sea of MARMORA, and at the entrance of the channel of the DARDANELLES, in foggy weather, and with a ſudden and violent north wind accompanied by ſnow and rain. During the three winter months and in the vernal equinox, prudent and timid navigators do not ſet ſail if the weather be not ſettled, and they generally paſs the night at an anchorage, on the ſmalleſt equivocal ſign that they perceive. The Turkiſh and Greek mariners ſcarcely ever ſail, during the ſix moſt dangerous months of the year, to run every night into a harbour, and to anchor whenever the wind is too ſtrong, when it is contrary, or when the ſky threatens a ſtorm.

The BLACK SEA, by the account of the mariners who frequent it, is ſtill more ſtormy, during the winter, than the PROPONTIS and the ARCHIPELAGO: the ſky then is frequently foggy or covered with clouds, and the harbours there are far from numerous; which is the reaſon that the Orientals, who almoſt all navigate without a compaſs, dare not expoſe themſelves there during three or four months of the year, and that the boldeſt and leaſt ignorant among them periſh there ſometimes, becauſe, accuſtomed not to loſe ſight of the land, the north, north-eaſt or north-weſt winds, which blow generally with the greateſt ſtrength, daſh their veſſels * to pieces on the rocks which ſkirt the ſouth coaſt. During the ſummer, this ſea is as free from ſtorms as the MEDITERRANEAN, and the weather there is commonly very fine.

Notwithſtanding the facility which there would be at CONSTANTINOPLE to procure ſtones, bricks, lime, and every thing that is neceſſary for building in a ſolid and durable manner, the houſes of the rich, like thoſe of the poor, are conſtructed with wood. The frame, almoſt always of oak, reſts on a foundation in maſonry of no great depth: the interſtices left by the wood, are filled up by means of earth kneaded with ſtraw or chopped hemp; the wall is covered with painted planks, rather ill joined: all the floors are of wood, and the roofs are made with hollow tiles, diſpoſed as they are ſeen in the South of FRANCE. The public edifices alone, ſuch as the baths, the caravanſaries, and the beſeſteins are built in maſonry in a very ſolid manner.

As for the moſques, conſtructed on the model of the ancient Greek churches, the greater part are of a tolerably handſome form. The pillars of marble, alabaſter, granite, and porphyry are placed with much more taſte than is generally diſplayed by the Turks. The minarets by which they are ſur-

* Theſe veſſels, called ſaïques, are conſtructed in ſuch a manner as not to be able to keep the ſea when the wind is too ſtrong. They are obliged to preſent their ſtern to the wind, and gain a harbour.

mounted,

mounted, to the number of one, two, four or ſix, have an effect very picturesque and very agreeable to the eye.

In a great part of the empire, eſpecially in the countries where the rains are uncommon and the heat exceſſive, all the houſes have, in lieu of a ridged roof, terraces or flat roofs on which the inhabitants ſleep in ſummer: but this cuſtom is not introduced at CONSTANTINOPLE, where the heats are temperate, and the nights cool and damp.

If we except the palaces of the ambaſſadors and a few merchants' houſes, the inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE have no chimnies in the apartments which they occupy: they warm themſelves by means of a braſier in copper or baked earth, called *mangal*, which they place within reach of their ſofas: but in the houſes of ſome Muſſulmans, and in almoſt all thoſe of the Greeks and Armenians, this braſier is placed under a round or ſquare table, covered with ſeveral carpets, one of which, wadded and quilted, in printed calico, hangs down to the floor in every direction, and retains the heat under the table: in this caſe a little charcoal is put into the braſier, and it is covered with aſhes, in order to temper the heat. A ſtuffed bench, placed all round, allows ſeveral perſons to ſit down, to ſtretch out their legs towards the mangal, and to receive the heat up to their middle. This table, called *tandour*, appears to have a Greek origin, if we conſider that its uſe is more common among the Greeks than among the Turks, and that it is no longer to be found in the interior of ASIA MINOR, where the colds are more ſharp and more piercing than at CONSTANTINOPLE.

Whenever it is a little cold, the women ſeldom quit their tandour, there it is that they paſs their day, that they work, that they receive their female friends, that they cauſe their meals to be ſerved up. In the evening, it is

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on the tandour that they play at cards *, at chefs, or at draughts. It is round the tandour that they affemble to carry on converfation, communicate the news to each other, liften to fome tragical ftory, fome tale of a ghoft, or the prowefs of fome pacha in rebellion againft the PORTE.

The Europeans willingly habituate themfelves to this cuftom, becaufe it brings the two fexes together, and becaufe the ftrict eye of a mother, or the jealous looks of a hufband, cannot remark the figns of intelligence nor prevent the expreffive touches which the tandour favours. If ever the ufe of chimnies could be introduced at CONSTANTINOPLE, we are perfuaded that the Greek women would oppofe it with all their might; and certainly they would find in their perfuafive eloquence, good reafons in favour of the gentle, moderate, and more economical heat of the tandour.

In a city where the houfes are of wood and ill built, where the windows are numerous and badly fhut, where the wind and exterior air come into every room, not only through the doors and windows, but through the walls and partitions, neither the mangal nor the tandour could fufficiently fecure the inhabitants from the cold: they require to be warmly clothed: RUSSIA and POLAND afforded them the warmeft clothing that man can wear, and the cuftom of furs was adopted by the inhabitants of the capital, whence it fpread in a moment over the moft diftant provinces. The peliffe is become every where the aliment of luxury, the indication of opulence, the reward of fervices, a preffing want to all. In countries where the cold is never felt, as in EGYPT and ARABIA, as well as in the moft northern cities of TURKEY, fuch as CONSTANTINOPLE, ADRIANOPLE, and BELGRADE, this cuftom is general, not only among rich perfons and thofe who enjoy a moderate fortune, but likewife among the indigent.

* Cards are known only to the Greeks and Armenians who frequent the Europeans.

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The rich man wears at the ſame time two or three furs during the winter; he changes them in all ſeaſons, and, during the ſummer, he is ſtill ſeen dreſſed in the ſerge of ANGORA, lined with *petit gris*, or gray ſquirrel-ſkin. If the inhabitant of the country-places cannot procure a fine and foreign ſkin, he at leaſt uſes thoſe which fall in his way: the hare, the jackal, the lamb, the ſheep, all are acceptable to him; he ſecures himſelf from the cold, and he imitates the inhabitants of the cities.

The women have likewiſe furs of all ſeaſons: the black fox, the ſable for winter, the gray ſquirrel for autumn and ſpring, the ermine for ſummer: the greater part have in their cloſets ten or twelve furred gowns, the deareſt of which ſometimes exceeds fifteen or twenty thouſand livres.

It is not ſurpriſing that fires ſhould be frequent in CONSTANTINOPLE, when there is continually fire, during the winter, on wood-floors, within reach of ſofas, mats, and carpets. The ſmalleſt negligence, children playing, or a few ſparks to which no attention has been paid, frequently ſet on fire thoſe combuſtible ſubſtances; and ſhould a perſon then happen to be aſleep or abſent from his houſe, the fire communicates by degrees from the furniture to the floor; if it be long before it is perceived, it ſoon breaks out with violence, ſpreads with rapidity, gains the neighbouring houſes, and ſometimes even conſumes a conſiderable portion of the city. From the palace of the ambaſſador and from the elevated places of PERA, we were, more than once, witneſſes of the violence of fire, of the quickneſs with which it ſpread, and of the terrible effect which it produced.

This ſight, beautiful and awful as it is, ſtrikes with horror the man of feeling who wiſhes to contemplate it, becauſe it preſents the image of unfortunate beings who, in thoſe frightful moments, are ſtruggling with death; of thoſe who, ſeized with terror, are endeavouring to eſcape with their

valuable

valuable effects; of thofe, in fhort, who are ftriving, in the midft of the flames, to carry off children or old men that are dear to them.

When a fire breaks out, whether by day, or by night, all the inhabitants of the city are foon warned to have an eye to their own fafety, or to give affiftance to the unfortunate perfons concerning whom they take an intereft. The guard of every quarter parades the ftreets, trailing on the pavement flicks fhod with iron, and crying from time to time in a melancholy and mournful voice: "*There's a fire!*" Two enormous drums, placed the one on a lofty tower about the middle of CONSTANTINOPLE, and the other on that of GALATA, likewife apprize the inhabitants of a fire having broken out. In thefe circumftances, it is the duty of the commander of the janizaries to run immediately with a numerous guard to the place where the fire has been difcovered: the grand vifir muft alfo repair thither in perfon, and if the fire be not extinguifhed immediately, the fultan never fails to come, and to caufe money to be diftributed in order to excite the pumpers, the porters, the guard, and the paffengers, to work with ardour. But when the fire has made fome progrefs, and efpecially when it is rendered more active by the wind, no hope can be entertained of extinguifhing it but by endeavouring to circumfcribe it: in order to effect this, the neareft houfes which are ftill untouched are demolifhed as quickly as poffible: the materials are removed before the fire has reached them, and thofe which cannot be taken away are laid under water.

The damages occafioned by fire are foon repaired: a few days after the conflagration, are feen on all fides houfes rifing fimilar to thofe which the fire has confumed: the imperfections prefented by narrow ftreets, ill laid out, are exactly preferved; nor is any change made in the order and diftribution of the apartments. The Muffulman comes thither to refume, if he can, his former occupations, and live there, as before, without regret and without forefight.

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volatile alkali fluor or of ammoniac, which was given every three hours; and at night half a drachm of diafcordium and as much theriaca. In lieu of volatile alkali, I adminiftered to fome workmen belonging to the arfenal, concerning whom Citizen BRUN interefted himfelf, twenty grains of flour of fulphur every fix hours, in a glafs of the fame infufion. On the fecond and third day, from what I afterwards learnt, the phyfician confiderably increafed the dofe, fo much fo that it operated as an emetic and cathartic, and excited a copious fweat. The bubo fuppurated very well, and thefe patients perfectly recovered.

It is neceffary to purge from time to time when the diforder is prolonged, and the patient begins to grow better, and to keep up his ftrength by meat broths, and even by a light diet more fubftantial. In the beginning, on the contrary, nothing but light rice creams, barley water, or gruel fhould be allowed; the patient muft be made to take a ptifan of barley and liquorice root, to which fhall be added, according to circumftances, a little nitre.

The treatment eftablifhed by the people of the country, confifts in giving (except to fcrupulous Muffulmans) fpirituous liquors, fuch as brandy, in the intention of driving out the venom and provoking the iffue of a bubo. The fick perfon is then made to fwallow the urine of one in health, in which the juice of two or three lemons has been fqueezed. The expreffed juice of parfley is alfo given; this laft is regarded by the Jewifh phyficians, as one of the beft remedies againft the plague. They alfo prefcribe opiates into the compofition of which enters, among various cordials and tonics, mufk, amber, and above all animal bezoar. When the bubo appears, they apply to it a plafter made with the yolk of an egg, and verdigrife or alum reduced to powder.

Garlic, onion, vinegar, and particularly brandy, are confidered by the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, as prefervatives againft the plague. Moft

of them keep in their hands ſome labdanum *, an aromatic ſubſtance which heat ſoftens and renders more odoriferous; they turn it again and again in every way between the fingers, and ſmell to it from time to time, and eſpecially when they are in fear of any dangerous emanations. Some, in the ſame view, carry about them muſk, ambergris, or camphire.

No one doubts in the LEVANT, that a perſon can have the plague ſeveral times: the opinion of phyſicians, on this ſubject, is perfectly conformable to that of the public; and I have myſelf ſeen on ſeveral perſons the ſcar of two or three buboes which had ſaved them as many times. Obſervation proves every day in TURKEY, that the plague attacks indifferently him who has eſcaped it one or more times, and him who has never had it; therefore the propoſal made by ſome phyſicians to inoculate that diſorder, as we inoculate the ſmall-pox, is at leaſt ridiculous: it would be far more rational to propoſe the means of cauſing it diſappear from the Ottoman Empire and from BARBARY, as it is made to diſappear from the civilized States of EUROPE.

It has frequently been remarked at CONSTANTINOPLE, that domeſtic animals were not exempt from the plague. They are, indeed, leſs ſuſceptible than man of being attacked by it, and it is ſcarcely but in the years when the diſorder ſhews itſelf with all its intenſeneſs, that it makes ravages among them. Several intelligent perſons aſſured me that dogs, in every caſe, eſcaped in greater number than man from this diſeaſe, and that they had, like him, buboes the ſuppuration of which was more or leſs abundant.

It would be very important, no doubt, to inquire into the origin of this diſeaſe, to obſerve the nature of its venom, and to explain why, being ſo con-

* Labdanum is extracted from a ſpecies of rock-roſe, and gathered in *Greece*, in the Iſlands of the *Archipelago*, in *Crete*, and at *Cyprus*.

tagious,

tagious, ſo quick, and ſo terrible, it is not tranſmitted by the air, and cannot be communicated without the immediate contact of a ſick perſon, or an object touched by him. It would be intereſting to know what are the objects ſuſceptible or not of tranſmitting this venom, and how long a time it can be preſerved; what is the degree of heat or cold that cauſes it to diſappear; what are the ſubſtances which can ſecure one from it, and to what degree they can do ſo. It would reſult, perhaps, from theſe inquiries, that this virus is analogous to that of the itch, of ſyphilis, of madneſs, and of all the diſorders which, in man and in animals, are only contagious through immediate contact; and then it might be poſſible to find among the preparations of metals and ſemi-metals, if not the ſpecific for the plague, at leaſt a remedy that might cure it in ſeveral inſtances.

CHAPTER XVI.

Of the ulemas.—Difference between this body and the miniſters of religion.—Tribunals of juſtice.—Of inheritance.

In every country on earth, the miniſters and interpreters of religion enjoy very great privileges; but in none, without doubt, are the advantages which they derive from their profeſſion ſo great as in Turkey. Here they poſſeſs the moſt lucrative employments; they join judicial to religious power; they are at the ſame time interpreters of religion and judges of all civil and criminal affairs; they are ſecure from the extortions of the pachas and great men of the empire: they cannot be legally put to death without the conſent of their chief: their property, after their deceaſe, paſſes as a right to their heirs, without the imperial treaſury being able to appropriate it to itſelf. They form, in ſhort, under the name of *ulemas*, a corporation, highly conſidered, powerful, and formidable ſometimes to the throne itſelf, from their directing almoſt always public opinion, and from there being, perhaps, no government where public opinion is pronounced with ſo much ſtrength and ſucceſs as in Turkey.

We muſt not, however, confound theſe magiſtrates, theſe doctors of law with the *imans* who ſerve the moſques, with the *muezins*, whoſe employment is to aſcend five times a day to the minarets in order to ſummon the Muſſulmans to prayers: the latter are not admitted into the auguſt body of the *ulemas*: they are turned out of office, or if they voluntarily quit their functions, they return into the claſs of ſimple private perſons. Subject, like the other Turks, to the magiſtrate of the place who appoints them on the preſentation that is made

made to him by the people, the imans are not under the particular inſpection nor under the ſafe-guard of the mufti and the mollas. They may certainly be conſidered as miniſters of religion in the moſques, but it is the ulemas who are its depoſitaries and interpreters.

The Koran, as is well known, is the civil and criminal code of the Muſſulmans, the regulator of the rights and duties of all the citizens: all judgments, all ſentences, all deciſions muſt have emanated from this book reputed ſacred, or from the interpretations which commentators have given of it, in this prerogative reſides excluſively in the hands of the ulemas.

The following is in a few words the order preſented by this body, the moſt reſpectable and the beſt informed of the Ottoman Empire.

The mufti or ſheik-iſlam is the ſupreme chief of the religion of MAHOMET, the oracle who is conſulted, and who ſolves all the queſtions which are put to him: his deciſions are called *fetfas*. The ſultan has recourſe to him in all difficult and intricate caſes, and he promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, eſtabliſhes no impoſt without having obtained a fetfa. It is the mufti who girds on the ſultan's ſword on his acceſſion to the throne, at the ſame time reminding him of the obligation of defending the religion of the prophet and of propagating its creed.

This eminent place might ſerve, no doubt, as a counterpoiſe to the almoſt abſolute and unlimited authority of the ſovereign: it might even frequently paralyze it, if the latter had not the power of appointing the mufti, of depoſing him, of baniſhing him, and even of putting him to death after having depoſed him; and, indeed, it ſeldom happens that a mufti oppoſes the will of the ſultan and his miniſters. His fetfas are forced from him by the wiſh of preſerving his place and by the fear of death: yet more than once religious

zeal

zeal and probity have induced ſome to preſent themſelves to the ſultan, and to make to him obſervations and remonſtrances; ſome even, more fanatic and more courageous, braving every danger, have refuſed to condeſcend to his wiſhes. Hiſtory affords various examples of ſultans and viſirs killed or depoſed through the great influence of the muftis on public opinion; but it likewiſe preſents more muftis who have been victims of their zeal for religion and of their attachment to the intereſts of the people.

The mufti reſides at CONSTANTINOPLE and enjoys ſeveral appanages: he is treated with much attention by the ſultan; both the great and the people ſhew him the utmoſt reſpect, and ſubmit blindly to his fetfas. According to the eſtabliſhed order, he muſt be choſen from among the kadileſkers of ROMANIA and thoſe who have occupied that employment. Seldom does favour there lead to the appointment of a kadileſker of NATOLIA, a ſtambol-effendi, or a ſimple molla: he remains in place as long as it pleaſes the ſultan to keep him there.

In public ceremonies the mufti and the grand viſir walk on the ſame line, the grand viſir on the right, and the mufti on the left. When the latter is diſgraced, he is not permitted to remain in the capital: the ſultan fears the influence of a man whom the people are accuſtomed to regard as the oracle of religion. He is baniſhed to ſome iſland of the ARCHIPELAGO or to ſome houſe ſituated on the BOSPHORUS, with a prohibition to ſtir out of it, to receive any of the principal officers of the empire, or to correſpond with them.

The mufti preſents annually a liſt to the ſultan for the nomination of two kadileſkers, of the ſtambol-effendi, of the mollas of MECCA and of MEDINA, of thoſe of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, CAIRO, and DAMASCUS, as well as of thoſe of JERUSALEM, ALEPPO, SMYRNA, LARISSA, SALONICA, SCUTARI, GALATA, and AIJUP. It is commonly according to the rank of ſeniority that the

the choice is made, when favour does not call thither ſome protected perſon or the ſon of ſome great man.

There are at CONSTANTINOPLE two kadileſkers, that of ROMANIA or of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA or of TURKEY in ASIA. They were formerly the judges of military men, the former for European TURKEY, and the latter for the Aſiatic countries, when the ſultan commanded them in perſon. The kadileſker of ROMANIA was then charged to decide on the affairs of the Muſſulmans, and the other on thoſe of the tributary ſubjects. For ſome time paſt, the former has the pre-eminence over the latter, and determines alone all the cauſes carried to his tribunal by the ſole will and at the requeſt of the plaintiffs. The tribunal of the kadileſker of NATOLIA has been a long time ſuppreſſed as uſeleſs. They both aſſiſt at the divan of the grand viſir, hear and diſcuſs the buſineſs brought before them, after which the kadileſker of ROMANIA alone pronounces the ſentence. They remain in place only a year; but the kadileſker of NATOLIA generally ſucceeds that of ROMANIA, and the former has before paſſed through the ſame rank. They appoint all the ſimple cadis of the empire; which makes their place, in a country where every thing is venal, very lucrative, independently of the appanages which they poſſeſs. The kadileſker of ROMANIA appoints the cadis of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA appoints thoſe of ASIA and EGYPT.

After them comes the ſtambol-effendi, molla or judge of the capital. It is he who more particularly takes cognizance of all the affairs, of all the law-ſuits which ariſe among perſons who exerciſe the different arts and trades. He alſo repairs on the Wedneſday of every week to the viſir's, in order to determine with the mollas of GALATA, SCUTARI, and AIJUP *, all the affairs

* AIJUP is one of the ſuburbs of *Conſtantinople*.

which

which there prefent themfelves. He has feveral tribunals in different quarters of CONSTANTINOPLE, where he places a naïb or lieutenant, to determine without appeal like himfelf.

The ftambol-effendi has the general infpection of the grain and other provifions which arrive for the fupply of the city. All the veffels laden with grain are obliged to come to the landing-place of the general depot of flour, *oun-capan*, where a naïb infpects it, fixes the price of it, and diftributes it to the bakers: he keeps a regifter of the quantity of corn which arrives, of that which is diftributed, and of the price at which it is delivered. There is likewife a naïb at the depot of tallow, *yac-capan*, for the diftribution of that article to the corporations. The ftambol-effendi muft go from time to time into the different quarters of the city, in order to examine the eatables which are fold by retail, and to verify whether the weights are every where juft. He immediately punifhes with the baftinado thofe who are found with falfe weights, or with adulterated commodities, and fometimes he caufes them to be nailed by the ear to the door of the fhop. A fecond tranfgreffion is almoft always punifhed with death.

The ftambol-effendi remains in office but one year: he generally paffes to that of kadilefker of NATOLIA, and is appointed from among the mollas of MECCA and MEDINA.

To the imperial mofques of CONSTANTINOPLE, BURSA, and ADRIANOPLE, are attached *madreffés* or colleges, to which are fent, from all parts of the empire, young people to be inftructed in the law of the prophet, in religious, civil, and criminal jurifprudence, and to learn all the opinions, all the fubtleties of the commentators of the Koran. They are made to undergo various examinations, and when they are thought fufficiently well informed, they are given the rank of *muderis* or profeffor. Thefe colleges were founded

Among this ignorant and ferocious people, fire is not unfrequently a mode of expreſſing their diſcontent at the dearneſs of proviſions, at the abuſe of authority, at a denial of juſtice, or at the innovations which the government wiſhes to introduce: of this, hiſtory affords us ſeveral inſtances. We ſhall alſo relate in another place with ſome degree of minuteneſs how the Turks, at SMYRNA, revenged themſelves for the aſſaſſination of a janizary, by carrying fire and ſword into the quarter of the Europeans, and murdering indiſcriminately the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews that they met in the ſtreets. The fire at PERA, which took place in the year VII. (1799) is attributed by thoſe who were witneſſes of it, to the expedition of the French into EGYPT, and ſtill more to the monſtrous alliance of the PORTE with RUSSIA.

From the aſpect of that multitude of dogs which are met with in the ſtreets of the capital, from their exceſſive leanneſs, and from the hunger which torments them, one would be inclined to imagine that, independently of the plague, of fires, and of the ſoldiery that deſolate this city, madneſs muſt be blended to thoſe ſcourges and cauſe, in its turn, many ravages among an improvident people: one would be miſtaken, for if travellers may be credited, the teſtimony of the inhabitants, and the opinion of a great number of phyſicians whom I conſulted on this ſubject, canine madneſs is totally unknown in the EAST. It appears that this diſorder is as foreign to theſe countries, as the plague is to the part of EUROPE which we inhabit; and I do not imagine that, in any circumſtances, either the one or the other can make its appearance ſpontaneouſly, whatever may be the ſtate of the atmoſphere, the quality and the quantity of the aliments, and the vicinity of infected places: a dog muſt neceſſarily be bitten by another dog or by ſome other animal afflicted by that diſorder, for madneſs to break out in him, as a man muſt have a communication with peſtiferous perſons or touch the objects to which they have tranſmitted their taint, for him to be attacked by the plague. The ſyphilis offers us an

example more ſtriking of the diſeaſes which cannot be attributed to other cauſes than to a contact with perſons infected. But this is not the place to treat of canine madneſs: it is ſufficient for us to remark that it is unknown in the Ottoman Empire, although the various cauſes to which phyſicians attribute it, exiſt in TURKEY almoſt all in a degree more eminent than in EUROPE.

In fact, dogs are there more numerous; and as they belong to no one, they there ſuffer more than in our countries, from hunger and thirſt: the climate is much hotter than ours, and the cold is ſufficiently ſharp at CONSTANTINOPLE, and ADRIANOPLE, for thoſe animals, to whom the entrance of the houſes is prohibited, to feel it more, during the night, than thoſe of the northern countries of EUROPE. The former, as is well known, can ſecure themſelves to a certain degree from the inclemency of the ſeaſons, to which the dogs of TURKEY are inceſſantly expoſed.

Although the Muſſulmans conſider dogs as unclean animals, ſo much ſo that they avoid touching them, and prevent them from entering into their houſes, yet they ſuffer them to breed conſiderably in moſt towns, becauſe they think that their dung is very fit for the dreſſing and the dyeing of Morocco leather: one could not even, if we may believe them, ſupply the place of this ſubſtance by another. The advantage which they alſo derive from thoſe animals, is that they clear the ſtreets of the carrion and other filth which the inhabitants are inceſſantly throwing there.

The charity of the Turks in regard to them conſiſts in giving them ſometimes bread and what they cannot conſume, in diſtributing to them daily the liver, lights, entrails, and head of the ſheep which are killed in the ſlaughter-houſes, becauſe they never make uſe of thoſe aliments proſcribed by their religion, and becauſe the chriſtians, following their example, dare

not eat them. Every day are ſeen in the ſtreets men carrying on a long pole a great number of theſe livers and lights, in order to ſell them at one or two ſous to the devout and the rich who may be deſirous of regaling with them the dogs of their neighbourhood.

There are perſons who cauſe to be built, near the door of their houſes, huts for the purpoſe of lodging bitches and their young: they carry thither ſtraw, and give them every day bread or meat. It is even ſaid that ſome have, on their death-bed, left legacies for the ſupport of a certain number of theſe animals.

The police which the dogs exerciſe among themſelves is very ſtrict: divided into packs more or leſs numerous, according to the quantity of ſuſtenance which a particular part of the town affords, they always frequent the ſame ſtreets, aſſemble round the ſlaughter-houſes and places where they find food, and if they perceive a dog belonging to another quarter, they fall on him, and drive him away, biting him as hard as they can. Ill fed as they are, they, undoubtedly, are afraid to ſhare a ſcanty meal with a new comer. If it happen that one of them be driven from his pack, he is generally obliged to leave the town and wander about the fields unleſs he be ſtrong enough to diſpute with perſeverance a place of refuſe, or patient enough to endure for a long time the bites and the croſſneſs of thoſe with which he wiſhes to aſſociate.

Vultures, kites, and moſt of the birds of night combine with the dogs to clear the city of its filth: the firſt mentioned * arrive in the ſpring, paſs the ſummer on the minarets, the moſques, and other elevated places, there lay their eggs, and return before the winter into the more ſouthern countries, ſuch as Egypt, Arabia, and the interior of Africa. During the heat

* *Vultur pernopterus.*

of the day, they ſoar to a conſiderable height, hover for ſeveral hours together over the town, and at night come to take their ſhare of the carrion which they have perceived.

The kite, the great-eared owl, the long-eared owl, the ſcops owl, the common owl, the ſcreech owl, and the reddiſh owl make war on the rats and mice, which are extremely numerous in a city built of wood, where the inhabitants are very neglectful, and where cats are ſcarce and often dangerous, as they may tranſmit the plague from one houſe to another, in the ſeaſon of their loves.

As for the ordure, the inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE do not commonly give themſelves the trouble to have it removed, becauſe they depend in this reſpect on the rain. This reſource is almoſt always ſufficient in autumn, winter, and ſpring, becauſe the city affords every where a declivity ſufficiently great for the waters to waſh it away and carry it along with them; and when theſe means are not ſufficient, they throw it into the harbour; which forms, on ſeveral parts of the ſhore, conſiderable riſings.

CHAPTER XV.

Of the plague.—Curative indications of this diſeaſe.

When there neither exiſts, near a town, marſhes nor other hotbeds of infection; when the air is inceſſantly renewed with facility, and carries off the putrid miaſmata reſulting from a great population; when the waters are pure and the aliments of a good quality; when, in a word, the climate is temperate, the inhabitants enjoy, in general, good health, and are expoſed only to the complaints common to human nature. All theſe advantages are united at Constantinople, to ſuch a degree that we ſhould not heſitate to ſay that this city would be one of the moſt healthful in the world, if a terrible malady did not there make frequent ravages, and carry off from time to time a part of the inhabitants. In fact, if we except the plague, the cauſe of which appears foreign to the climate, as we ſhall preſently ſhew, at Constantinople one is not expoſed to local diſorders, and ſtrangers who arrive in that city have not to dread the malignant influence of a dangerous and unwholeſome climate. But the plague alone takes off more inhabitants than all other diſorders together cauſe to periſh, more than war or navigation cauſe to diſappear; and if this city was not continually repairing, from all points of the empire, the loſſes which it ſuſtains, it would ſhortly be no more than one vaſt ſolitude.

With their ideas of fataliſm, the Turks, perſuaded that man cannot change the immutable decrees of the Eternal, conſider not only as uſeleſs, but even as criminal the precautions which the Europeans take againſt that deſtructive ſcourge, and when death is ſtriking them on all ſides, they diſplay a great tranquillity and an entire reſignation. Not one of them appears to have any repugnance

pugnance to attend the ſick who are dear to them; neither could he make up his mind to forſake them or give them up, as is done by Europeans in moſt of the ſea-ports of the LEVANT, to hirelings who are accuſed of haſtening too frequently the death of the patient, in order to enjoy ſooner his ſpoils.

Under whatever form death preſent itſelf, the ſage receives it with ſerenity: it is not even terrible to the generality of men, except when it is accompanied by acute pains, and when every hope of recovery has fled; but the courage of the moſt ſtoical philoſopher would, perhaps, be ſtaggered, if, ſtruck by this cruel diſorder, he were witneſs of the fright which ſeizes on all thoſe who have had a communication with him; if he found himſelf forſaken, abandoned by his neareſt relatives, his beſt friends; if, in thoſe moments of grief and agony, he could not ſee and embrace a wife, a child, nor dictate to them his laſt will; if he ſaw himſelf deſcending, as it were yet living, into the grave.

Affections the moſt tender, the cloſeſt connexions, almoſt always among Europeans give way to the fright which this cruel diſorder inſpires: the wiſh of our own preſervation breaks in a moment the ties of blood, and ſtifles ſentiments the moſt virtuous. On the firſt ſymptoms of a ſerious illneſs, the man ſuſpected of having the plague is immediately ſent to the *hoſpice*, ſituated at the extremity of the ſtreet of PERA, ſolely deſtined for the treatment of that diſorder: there a Maronite friar is charged to receive the patients that are ſent, and to cauſe to be adminiſtered to them ſuch aſſiſtance as his zeal may ſuggeſt.

Gratitude is, undoubtedly, due to the man who has devoted himſelf to the relief of the infected, who has been able to make up his mind to reſide among them and pour into their heart the words of conſolation; but to his good intentions he ought to join the knowledge neceſſary for the treatment of this diſorder, and be able, without expoſing himſelf too much, to afford every aſſiſtance which the patients claim, and which humanity requires. Unfortunately,

fortunately, the attentions of this friar are hitherto confined to caufing to be given from a diftance a few light aliments, a few infignificant drinks, and to prefenting himfelf at the door of each patient in order to adminifter to him the fpiritual fuccour prefcribed by religion.

It would, doubtlefs, be eafy by taking fuitable precautions, to eftablifh in this hofpice a curative treatment, which might be modified or changed till a fortunate refult had been attained. We doubt not that this diforder, however quick and terrible it may be, may fometimes yield to a treatment directed by an able and experienced hand, and that it may, perhaps, be eafy to preferve one's felf from its contagious effects by never touching the patient or his garments, without immediately dipping one's hands in water, vinegar, or any other liquid; by fumigating his room from time to time, by making him even fleep in the open air when the feafon might permit, by taking, in fhort, the precaution of anointing with oil, butter, or greafe, one's hands and the parts of one's body the moft expofed to any contact.

When one has refided in the LEVANT and efpecially at CONSTANTINOPLE, one is convinced that, in ordinary times, this diforder is propagated but flowly; few individuals are attacked by it at a time; fome get the better of it, and one muft have a more intimate communication, a more immediate contact to be afflicted by it, than when it fhews itfelf under an epidemical afpect: in this latter cafe, it fpreads with an aftonifhing rapidity, is communicated with the greateft facility, and carries off almoft all thofe who are ftruck by it. The moft certain method of guarding againft it, is for a perfon to fhut himfelf up in his houfe and no longer hold communication with any one; for it appears demonftrated that the air does not tranfmit the plague; but that it is communicated and propagated only by the contact of a fick perfon, or by objects which he has recently touched; and what muft leave no doubt on this fubject, is that there is no inftance of the moft deftructive plague having introduced itfelf

among

among the Europeans, when they have insulated themselves, and dipped in water, vinegar, or perfume, all the articles which they drew from without.

This observation which is daily confirmed by experience, no longer permits us to look for the cause of this disease in putrid, malignant, pestilential miasmata emanated from some infectious places, some stagnant waters, &c. still less in the periodical inundation of the NILE, as some authors, on too slight grounds, have advanced. No city is more exposed to the plague than CONSTANTINOPLE; and, nevertheless, as we have before observed, the air there is very wholesome, and neither marshes nor infectious places are to be seen in the environs. In EGYPT, the NILE begins to swell towards the middle of Messidor, and has entirely overflowed its banks at the beginning of Fructidor. In Vendémiaire, the lands which the river has inundated are sown: this would, undoubtedly, be the period of the sudden appearance of the plague if this disorder were occasioned by the putrid exhalations produced by the waters remaining on the lands, and yet it is observed that this disease always ceases in EGYPT in the hottest season of the year, and that it very seldom breaks out in autumn, but more frequently in winter and spring, that is, when the waters spread over the lands have entirely disappeared, and there can no longer be dangerous exhalations. What likewise proves that the periodical inundations of the NILE have no influence on the plague, is that EGYPT is sometimes free from this disorder for several years together.

For this disease to make its appearance in a town, the germ must be brought thither from without. Infectious marshes, vegetable and animal substances in a state of putrefaction, vitiated aliments, and mephitic exhalations will, no doubt, sometimes occasion very serious disorders, and fevers as dangerous as the plague; but those disorders will cease when the cause which has produced them shall disappear: they will not embrace a vast extent of ground; they will be circumscribed to the places which gave them birth.

The

The plague visits the different countries of the Ottoman Empire, as the small-pox visits the different countries of EUROPE: like the latter, it neither owes its origin to putrid exhalations nor to causes derived from the soil or the climate: it exists in the LEVANT, as it would soon exist in EUROPE, if we took no method of securing ourselves from it, and it might, undoubtedly, be made to cease in the Ottoman Empire, if the Turks were capable of employing the means proper for that purpose. The plague visits TURKEY, and makes its appearance more or less often in a town, according as commerce and communications are more or less frequent: thus it is almost always at CONSTANTINOPLE, because this is the city which communicates the most with all the points of the empire. The plague cannot break out in any town of the provinces without its being soon transmitted to the capital. SMYRNA is the next city where this disorder most frequently makes ravages, because trade there is very brisk, and because the intercourse of that city with almost all those of TURKEY is rather frequent. EGYPT carries on a somewhat considerable trade with CONSTANTINOPLE; and, indeed, it commonly happens that the Turkish ships or the caravels belonging to the Grand Signior bring the plague to ALEXANDRIA, whence it spreads to ROSETTA, DAMIETTA, and CAIRO, and thence into all the villages and even into the habitation of the cultivator.

This cruel malady extends into SYRIA by means of the merchandise which EGYPT furnishes to that country: it comes thither also through SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE; thence it sometimes reaches DAMASCUS, ALEPPO, and MESOPOTAMIA; it is brought into the interior of ASIA MINOR by the caravans from CONSTANTINOPLE and SMYRNA. TURKEY in EUROPE is more exposed to the plague than the distant provinces of ASIA, on account of its vicinity and the connexions which it has with the capital. At DIARBEKIR and at MOSUL, this disease is known but every fifteen, eighteen,

or twenty years; it is much more rare at BAGDAT and BASSORA, and the Perſians are ſcarcely ever afflicted by it.

This difference is owing, on the one hand, to thoſe towns receiving ſcarcely any indigenous merchandiſe from SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, and to the peſtilential infection having time to be diſſipated in a very long paſſage acroſs ASIA MINOR, MESOPOTAMIA, or the deſert of ARABIA. Beſides, it appears certain that a cold ſomewhat ſevere, ſuch as is felt in ASIA MINOR, or a great heat like that of EGYPT, of SYRIA or of the deſert of ARABIA, is ſufficient for ſmothering entirely the germs of this ſcourge; and this, no doubt, is the reaſon that the plague does not make its appearance two years ſucceſſively in the countries either too cold or too hot, except on the coaſts, where it may be inceſſantly kept up by commercial communications.

TURKEY not furniſhing any merchandiſe to PERSIA, this diſorder can be tranſmitted thither only by travellers; but as the germ of this diſeaſe is ſoon developed in perſons who have received it, they would be attacked before they had travelled over a ſpace at all conſiderable. This is the caſe with BAGDAT and BASSORA: the interior of TURKEY furniſhes very few articles of trade to thoſe two cities: ſome ſilk ſtuffs are brought thither from DAMASCUS and ALEPPO, together with ſome European cloths, very little ſugar, cochineal, and indigo, but a great deal of old copper which paſſes into INDIA, and metals, as is well known, are little ſuſceptible of preſerving and tranſmitting the germs of the plague.

What fortunately contributes to retard the progreſs of this malady in the LEVANT, is that the Turks are in the habit of freighting from preference European veſſels for the conveyance of their merchandiſe, and our ſeamen are too well acquainted with the dangers which they have to run not to take

take every precaution that prudence requires. Besides, commercial speculations are almost always suspended or relaxed in a town violently afflicted by this scourge.

Furs of which the Turks make a great use, contribute most to the communication of the plague, either because the fur in which a man has died, serves to clothe or to adorn his nearest relation, or because it is immediately exposed to sale, and purchasers flock from all quarters. It is, besides, proved that this merchandise is the most susceptible of transmitting the plague, and it is commonly from CONSTANTINOPLE that all the chests of peltry are dispatched for the different sea-port towns of the LEVANT. The merchants of ALEXANDRIA have remarked that it is through that channel and through the sick persons that are sometimes on board the Turkish ships arriving from CONSTANTINOPLE, that this disorder breaks out in their town. It seldom happens that it comes thither from SYRIA, because the commodities which that country furnishes to EGYPT through the European vessels, such as tobacco and silk, are by no means susceptible of transmitting it. SMYRNA generally receives it from CONSTANTINOPLE, and sometimes from ALEXANDRIA and SALONICA, through the goods which are brought thither and through the sick who are there landed. The greater part of the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO secure themselves from it by not permitting access to vessels arriving from an infested town. May their example one day enlighten the Turks and make them sensible that man may, to a certain point, keep at a distance and retard the calamities which afflict him, and that the plague makes ravages among them, only because they neglect to take against it the precautions that are taken in EUROPE!

Next to peltry, cotton and wool are reputed the articles the most susceptible of transmitting this disorder: paper is infinitely dreaded, and is not received

without great circumſpection. In general, rough bodies catch the taint much more eaſily, and preſerve it much longer than ſmooth ones. On the ſmalleſt ſuſpicion of the plague, the merchants no longer admit the perſons with whom they carry on buſineſs, but in rooms from which every article of ſtuff furniture has been removed; they entirely ſhut their houſes if the diſeaſe make an alarming progreſs. In the chanceries of the legations, there is a partition erected which ſtrangers cannot paſs, and no paper is received there that has not been fumigated, that is, paſſed through the very warm vapour of an aromatic ſubſtance.

When the merchants are ſhut up, a known purveyor brings daily to their houſes the aliments that are beſpoke, and depoſits them in a great tub full of water, placed at the entrance of the houſe. Bread alone is excepted: neceſſity, no doubt, has eſtabliſhed the opinion that it is not ſuſceptible of tranſmitting the taint of the plague except when it is hot, and that there is nothing to be feared in receiving it cold. It is by means of theſe precautions, incomplete as they are, that the Europeans ſecure themſelves always from this terrible diſorder; but it is neceſſary that they ſhould exerciſe an active and ſtrict vigilance in regard to ſervants, that they ſhould prevent them from going out by ſtealth or introducing any ſtranger into the houſe.

I obſerved, during the ſtay that I made in the LEVANT, that if the progreſs of this malady is ſometimes extremely rapid, ſo much ſo that the ſick perſon ſinks under it the ſecond or third day, it frequently happens, eſpecially at CONSTANTINOPLE and at SMYRNA, where the plague is, as it were, endemical, that it ſhews itſelf under an aſpect leſs frightful. On certain occaſions, ſome patients abandoned to themſelves recover their health by means of one or two buboes which ſuppurate abundantly. The progreſs of the diſorder being then ſlow and uniform, and the ſymptoms being well characterized,

terized, it would be eafy to affift efficaciouffly thofe infected perfons, to eftablifh a methodical treatment, and employ for the phyfician and the affiftants prefervative means.

The unction of all the body of a fick perfon with olive-oil has lately been made known as a very important difcovery, and fure means of cure. Unfortunately experience has demonftrated the inutility of this remedy when the diforder has broken out: olive-oil cannot prevent the virus introduced into the infide of the body from making there its ufual ravages; but it may, as well as other oils, butter, and greafe, act as an excellent prefervative, if it be true, as every one afferts, that the butter-men, whofe hands and garments are almoft always impregnated with that fubftance, are fcarcely ever attacked by the plague.

It is likewife remarked that the facas or water-carriers are much lefs expofed to this diforder than other labouring men, and that thofe who wafh the body of perfons dead of the plague are not attacked by the difeafe through this operation: whence it would follow that greafy bodies oppofe the introduction of the peftilential venom, and that water carries it off with it.

Many perfons are in the habit of keeping open one or more iffues in order to preferve themfelves from this difeafe, and, what has been atteffed to me by a great number of phyficians, a perfon is not attacked by the plague during a venereal treatment, in whatever manner mercury be adminiftered.

It would be very intereffing to make, in this refpect, experiments which might leave no doubt, and which might tranquillize the perfons who fhould be willing to attend the fick; for, till the prefent time, almoft all the European phyficians have conftantly refufed to give their attendance to fuch patients, notwithftanding the warmeft entreaties and the moft advantageous promifes;

miſes; and he to whom the ardent deſire of inſtructing himſelf or the ſatisfaction of aſſiſting his fellow-creatures may have diſſembled the dangers which reſult from the treatment of this diſorder, has ſoon found himſelf the victim of his zeal and humanity. People are obliged to have recourſe to Jewiſh phyſicians who are led by a blind routine, governed by falſe prejudices, and incapable of drawing luminous inductions from the facts of which they are every day witneſſes. Theſe phyſicians, however, take the precaution neither to approach the ſick perſon, touch any thing in his houſe, nor adminiſter themſelves the remedies which they preſcribe.

Though I have not myſelf attended the ſick attacked by the plague, though I have not had it in my power to apply myſelf to the practice of that terrible diſorder, I have ſo frequently had an opportunity of converſing, either at CONSTANTINOPLE, or in the other parts of the LEVANT, with Greek and Jewiſh phyſicians, with perſons who have ſeen and attended patients infected with the plague, or had themſelves recovered from this diſeaſe, that I think I have acquired reſpecting it notions ſufficiently correct. On my third journey to CONSTANTINOPLE, I cauſed a trial to be made, through the means of a Jewiſh phyſician and of Citizen BRUN, naval architect, ſome remedies which were crowned with ſucceſs. I invite thoſe who ſhall be able to ſurmount the fear of danger, and who ſhall be willing to renounce all ſociety during the courſe of their obſervations, to follow up the experiments which I have begun, to modify and change the treatment till it gives a happy reſult. No place is more fit for ſuch obſervations than the hoſpice of the Franks or that of the Greeks, becauſe the patients are entirely at the diſpoſal of the phyſician, and the latter might, beſides, take with reſpect to himſelf every precaution that he ſhould judge proper.

We have ſaid that in the towns where the plague is habitual and as it were endemical, it ſhewed itſelf with ſymptoms leſs ſerious than when it

was

was epidemical; but when ſome time has elapſed ſince it appeared in a country, it generally aſſumes a character of malignity, ſo much ſo that almoſt all the patients who are attacked by it, die at the expiration of two or three days, ſometimes of four or five. It announces itſelf by an oppreſſion of ſpirits, and a total loſs of ſtrength, vomiting, frequently a ſharp pain in the ſtomach, and a pain in the head more or leſs violent: the ſick perſon complains of an internal, inſupportable heat; he does not long preſerve his reaſon; he ſoon raves, and, by his geſtures and his words, he betrays the fright by which his mind is ſeized. The pulſe is hard, ſcarcely feveriſh; it afterwards becomes intermittent and irregular: the patient generally dies in convulſions before a bubo has ſhewn any ſign of ſuppuration, before it has been well able to make its appearance.

When the diſorder manifeſts itſelf with this degree of malignity, there can be no hope of recovery. The art of curing in theſe circumſtances is always of no avail; but one may combat it with advantage and obtain ſeveral cures, either in the decline of the contagion, or in the years when the plague proceeds with more ſlowneſs, and ſhews itſelf with ſymptoms leſs terrible: then the oppreſſion is leſs great; the vomiting does not announce itſelf with a pain in the ſtomach ſo acute, the pulſe is leſs concentered, and the fever more perceptible: the patient preſerves his reaſon for ſome time, or if he rave, it is only by intervals and in a manner leſs tumultuous. The bubo, in theſe caſes, makes its appearance on the firſt or ſecond day, and quickly tends to ſuppuration. This plague, which might be called *mild*, comparatively to the other, is, nevertheleſs, a diſorder alſo very dangerous, becauſe ſcarcely one third of the ſick recover their health.

When the bubo is in full ſuppuration, the fever inſenſibly diminiſhes, the appetite returns, and the patient by degrees recovers his ſtrength; but if, through any miſtake in his regimen, through any exceſs, or through any

cauſe

cauſe frequently unknown, the ſuppuration of the bubo ceaſe entirely, or diminiſh all at once, the patient dies on the ſecond or third day at lateſt, with another bubo which ſcarcely ſhews itſelf.

Sweats do not appear till the pulſe is developed, and the diſorder aſſumes a favourable aſpect; this happens commonly on the fourth or fifth day: they give conſiderable relief, and prevent not the ſuppuration of the bubo.

Nature indicates that the plague cannot be cured without the ſudden appearance and the abundant ſuppuration of one or more buboes: all the efforts of the phyſician ſhould therefore tend to provoke, as quickly as poſſible, this ſuppuration, by the application of the actual cautery or of a burning iron to the place where the buboes begin to ſhew themſelves: this method is preferable to that of a bliſter, becauſe it is more expeditious, and one has not to fear the action of the cantharides, which would not fail to increaſe the internal heat of which the patient conſtantly complains.

Recourſe muſt quickly be had to an emetic in order to clear the ſtomach, and to follow likewiſe the indications which naturally preſent themſelves. Vomiting is one of the firſt ſymptoms of the diſorder; it ſcarcely ever fails to take place and to relieve the patient when it is abundant. Tartar emetic is that which appeared to me the moſt proper and the moſt ſafe.

Bleeding cannot be ſuitable in any caſe; it is never employed by the phyſicians of the country; it is even conſidered as hurtful; it would diminiſh the ſtrength of the patient, and counteract the eruption and the ſuppuration of the bubo.

The day after the emetic, I have preſcribed, with ſome ſucceſs, an infuſion of camomile, at the ſame time adding to every half glaſs two drops of volatile

volatile alkali fluor or of ammoniac, which was given every three hours; and at night half a drachm of diafcordium and as much theriaca. In lieu of volatile alkali, I adminiftered to fome workmen belonging to the arfenal, concerning whom Citizen BRUN intereftед himfelf, twenty grains of flour of fulphur every fix hours, in a glafs of the fame infufion. On the fecond and third day, from what I afterwards learnt, the phyfician confiderably increafed the dofe, fo much fo that it operated as an emetic and cathartic, and excited a copious fweat. The bubo fuppurated very well, and thefe patients perfectly recovered.

It is neceffary to purge from time to time when the diforder is prolonged, and the patient begins to grow better, and to keep up his ftrength by meat broths, and even by a light diet more fubftantial. In the beginning, on the contrary, nothing but light rice creams, barley water, or gruel fhould be allowed; the patient muft be made to take a ptifan of barley and liquorice root, to which fhall be added, according to circumftances, a little nitre.

The treatment eftablifhed by the people of the country, confifts in giving (except to fcrupulous Muffulmans) fpirituous liquors, fuch as brandy, in the intention of driving out the venom and provoking the iffue of a bubo. The fick perfon is then made to fwallow the urine of one in health, in which the juice of two or three lemons has been fqueezed. The expreffed juice of parfley is alfo given; this laft is regarded by the Jewifh phyficians, as one of the beft remedies againft the plague. They alfo prefcribe opiates into the compofition of which enters, among various cordials and tonics, mufk, amber, and above all animal bezoar. When the bubo appears, they apply to it a plafter made with the yolk of an egg, and verdigrife or alum reduced to powder.

Garlic, onion, vinegar, and particularly brandy, are confidered by the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, as prefervatives againft the plague. Moft

of them keep in their hands ſome labdanum *, an aromatic ſubſtance which heat ſoftens and renders more odoriferous; they turn it again and again in every way between the fingers, and ſmell to it from time to time, and eſpecially when they are in fear of any dangerous emanations. Some, in the ſame view, carry about them muſk, ambergris, or camphire.

No one doubts in the LEVANT, that a perſon can have the plague ſeveral times: the opinion of phyſicians, on this ſubject, is perfectly conformable to that of the public; and I have myſelf ſeen on ſeveral perſons the ſcar of two or three buboes which had ſaved them as many times. Obſervation proves every day in TURKEY, that the plague attacks indifferently him who has eſcaped it one or more times, and him who has never had it; therefore the propoſal made by ſome phyſicians to inoculate that diſorder, as we inoculate the ſmall-pox, is at leaſt ridiculous: it would be far more rational to propoſe the means of cauſing it diſappear from the Ottoman Empire and from BARBARY, as it is made to diſappear from the civilized States of EUROPE.

It has frequently been remarked at CONSTANTINOPLE, that domeſt' animals were not exempt from the plague. They are, indeed, leſs ſuſceptible than man of being attacked by it, and it is ſcarcely but in the years when the diſorder ſhews itſelf with all its intenſeneſs, that it makes ravages among them. Several intelligent perſons aſſured me that dogs, in every caſe, eſcaped in greater number than man from this diſeaſe, and that they had, like him, buboes the ſuppuration of which was more or leſs abundant.

It would be very important, no doubt, to inquire into the origin of this diſeaſe, to obſerve the nature of its venom, and to explain why, being ſo con-

* Labdanum is extracted from a ſpecies of rock-roſe, and gathered in *Greece*, in the Iſlands of the *Archipelago*, in *Crete*, and at *Cyprus*.

tagious,

tagious, ſo quick, and ſo terrible, it is not tranſmitted by the air, and cannot be communicated without the immediate contact of a ſick perſon, or an object touched by him. It would be intereſting to know what are the objects ſuſceptible or not of tranſmitting this venom, and how long a time it can be preſerved; what is the degree of heat or cold that cauſes it to diſappear; what are the ſubſtances which can ſecure one from it, and to what degree they can do ſo. It would reſult, perhaps, from theſe inquiries, that this virus is analogous to that of the itch, of ſyphilis, of madneſs, and of all the diſorders which, in man and in animals, are only contagious through immediate contact; and then it might be poſſible to find among the preparations of metals and ſemimetals, if not the ſpecific for the plague, at leaſt a remedy that might cure it in ſeveral inſtances.

CHAPTER XVI.

Of the ulemas.—Difference between this body and the miniſters of religion.—Tribunals of juſtice.—Of inheritance.

In every country on earth, the miniſters and interpreters of religion enjoy very great privileges; but in none, without doubt, are the advantages which they derive from their profeſſion ſo great as in Turkey. Here they poſſeſs the moſt lucrative employments; they join judicial to religious power; they are at the ſame time interpreters of religion and judges of all civil and criminal affairs; they are ſecure from the extortions of the pachas and great men of the empire: they cannot be legally put to death without the conſent of their chief: their property, after their deceaſe, paſſes as a right to their heirs, without the imperial treaſury being able to appropriate it to itſelf. They form, in ſhort, under the name of *ulemas*, a corporation, highly conſidered, powerful, and formidable ſometimes to the throne itſelf, from their directing almoſt always public opinion, and from there being, perhaps, no government where public opinion is pronounced with ſo much ſtrength and ſucceſs as in Turkey.

We muſt not, however, confound theſe magiſtrates, theſe doctors of law with the *imans* who ſerve the moſques, with the *muezins*, whoſe employment is to aſcend five times a day to the minarets in order to ſummon the Muſſulmans to prayers: the latter are not admitted into the auguſt body of the *ulemas*: they are turned out of office, or if they voluntarily quit their functions, they return into the claſs of ſimple private perſons. Subject, like the other Turks, to the magiſtrate of the place who appoints them on the preſentation that is made

made to him by the people, the imans are not under the particular inſpection nor under the ſafe-guard of the mufti and the mollas. They may certainly be conſidered as miniſters of religion in the moſques, but it is the ulemas who are its depoſitaries and interpreters.

The Koran, as is well known, is the civil and criminal code of the Muſſulmans, the regulator of the rights and duties of all the citizens: all judgments, all ſentences, all deciſions muſt have emanated from this book reputed ſacred, or from the interpretations which commentators have given of it, in this prerogative reſides excluſively in the hands of the ulemas.

The following is in a few words the order preſented by this body, the moſt reſpectable and the beſt informed of the Ottoman Empire.

The mufti or ſheik-iſlam is the ſupreme chief of the religion of MAHOMET, the oracle who is conſulted, and who ſolves all the queſtions which are put to him: his deciſions are called *fetfas*. The ſultan has recourſe to him in all difficult and intricate caſes, and he promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, eſtabliſhes no impoſt without having obtained a fetfa. It is the mufti who girds on the ſultan's ſword on his acceſſion to the throne, at the ſame time reminding him of the obligation of defending the religion of the prophet and of propagating its creed.

This eminent place might ſerve, no doubt, as a counterpoiſe to the almoſt abſolute and unlimited authority of the ſovereign: it might even frequently paralyze it, if the latter had not the power of appointing the mufti, of depoſing him, of baniſhing him, and even of putting him to death after having depoſed him; and, indeed, it ſeldom happens that a mufti oppoſes the will of the ſultan and his miniſters. His fetfas are forced from him by the wiſh of preſerving his place and by the fear of death: yet more than once religious

zeal

zeal and probity have induced ſome to preſent themſelves to the ſultan, and to make to him obſervations and remonſtrances; ſome even, more fanatic and more courageous, braving every danger, have refuſed to condeſcend to his wiſhes. Hiſtory affords various examples of ſultans and viſirs killed or depoſed through the great influence of the muftis on public opinion; but it likewiſe preſents more muftis who have been victims of their zeal for religion and of their attachment to the intereſts of the people.

The mufti reſides at CONSTANTINOPLE and enjoys ſeveral appanages: he is treated with much attention by the ſultan; both the great and the people ſhew him the utmoſt reſpect, and ſubmit blindly to his fetfas. According to the eſtabliſhed order, he muſt be choſen from among the kadileſkers of ROMANIA and thoſe who have occupied that employment. Seldom does favour there lead to the appointment of a kadileſker of NATOLIA, a ſtambol-effendi, or a ſimple molla: he remains in place as long as it pleaſes the ſultan to keep him there.

In public ceremonies the mufti and the grand viſir walk on the ſame line, the grand viſir on the right, and the mufti on the left. When the latter is diſgraced, he is not permitted to remain in the capital: the ſultan fears the influence of a man whom the people are accuſtomed to regard as the oracle of religion. He is baniſhed to ſome iſland of the ARCHIPELAGO or to ſome houſe ſituated on the BOSPHORUS, with a prohibition to ſtir out of it, to receive any of the principal officers of the empire, or to correſpond with them.

The mufti preſents annually a liſt to the ſultan for the nomination of two kadileſkers, of the ſtambol-effendi, of the mollas of MECCA and of MEDINA, of thoſe of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, CAIRO, and DAMASCUS, as well as of thoſe of JERUSALEM, ALEPPO, SMYRNA, LARISSA, SALONICA, SCUTARI, GALATA, and AIJUP. It is commonly according to the rank of ſeniority that the

the choice is made, when favour does not call thither some protected person or the son of some great man.

There are at CONSTANTINOPLE two kadileskers, that of ROMANIA or of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA or of TURKEY in ASIA. They were formerly the judges of military men, the former for European TURKEY, and the latter for the Asiatic countries, when the sultan commanded them in person. The kadilesker of ROMANIA was then charged to decide on the affairs of the Mussulmans, and the other on those of the tributary subjects. For some time past, the former has the pre-eminence over the latter, and determines alone all the causes carried to his tribunal by the sole will and at the request of the plaintiff. The tribunal of the kadilesker of NATOLIA has been a long time suppressed as useless. They both assist at the divan of the grand visir, hear and discuss the business brought before them, after which the kadilesker of ROMANIA alone pronounces the sentence. They remain in place only a year; but the kadilesker of NATOLIA generally succeeds that of ROMANIA, and the former has before passed through the same rank. They appoint all the simple cadis of the empire; which makes their place, in a country where every thing is venal, very lucrative, independently of the appanages which they possess. The kadilesker of ROMANIA appoints the cadis of TURKEY in EUROPE, and that of NATOLIA appoints those of ASIA and EGYPT.

After them comes the stambol-effendi, molla or judge of the capital. It is he who more particularly takes cognizance of all the affairs, of all the law-suits which arise among persons who exercise the different arts and trades. He also repairs on the Wednesday of every week to the visir's, in order to determine with the mollas of GALATA, SCUTARI, and AIJUP *, all the affairs

* AIJUP is one of the suburbs of *Constantinople*.

which

which there prefent themfelves. He has feveral tribunals in different quarters of CONSTANTINOPLE, where he places a naïb or lieutenant, to determine without appeal like himfelf.

The ftambol-effendi has the general infpection of the grain and other provifions which arrive for the fupply of the city. All the veffels laden with grain are obliged to come to the landing-place of the general depot of flour, *oun-capan*, where a naïb infpects it, fixes the price of it, and diftributes it to the bakers: he keeps a regifter of the quantity of corn which arrives, of that which is diftributed, and of the price at which it is delivered. There is likewife a naïb at the depot of tallow, *yac-capan*, for the diftribution of that article to the corporations. The ftambol-effendi muft go from time to time into the different quarters of the city, in order to examine the eatables which are fold by retail, and to verify whether the weights are every where juft. He immediately punifhes with the baftinado thofe who are found with falfe weights, or with adulterated commodities, and fometimes he caufes them to be nailed by the ear to the door of the shop. A fecond tranfgreffion is almoft always punifhed with death.

The ftambol-effendi remains in office but one year: he generally paffes to that of kadilefker of NATOLIA, and is appointed from among the mollas of MECCA and MEDINA.

To the imperial mofques of CONSTANTINOPLE, BURSA, and ADRIANOPLE, are attached *madreffés* or colleges, to which are fent, from all parts of the empire, young people to be inftructed in the law of the prophet, in religious, civil, and criminal jurifprudence, and to learn all the opinions, all the fubtleties of the commentators of the Koran. They are made to undergo various examinations, and when they are thought fufficiently well informed, they are given the rank of *muderis* or profeffor. Thefe colleges were founded

founded by different ſultans. The firſt was founded at NICEA, in the year 1330, by ORKHAN. They enjoy a conſiderable revenue, and provide for the ſupport of two or three thouſand ſcholars.

The muderis who are not willing to follow the career of profeſſor and obtain the eminent rank of molla, ſolicit of the kadileſkers a place of cadi, which is eaſily granted to them for a pecuniary ſacrifice. In the towns the leaſt important of the empire, there is a ſimple cadi, who judges without appeal all litigious affairs, not only of the Muſſulmans, but even thoſe of the Jews and Chriſtians. Frequently a lieutenant, called *naïb*, occupies the place of a cadi or of a molla, and judges like them without appeal: the naïb is a muderis, and runs the career of magiſtracy. He is generally appointed cadi the following year, and ſent to another poſt. The cadis remain in this rank, and obtain no other advancement than that of a tribunal more extenſive and conſequently more lucrative. They, nevertheleſs, become mollas of an inferior rank: ſuch are thoſe of BAGDAD, PHILOPOPOLIS, &c. but they cannot become kadileſkers, muftis, &c. unleſs they enter the grand moſque of SOLIMAN I. and continue their ſtudies.

The muderis who intend themſelves for the moſt important places, thoſe of molla, kadileſker, and mufti, paſs, after freſh examinations, to the moſque of *SULEÏMANI* or of SOLIMAN I, and wait till their turn, their merit, or their intereſt procures them an appointment. Eight among them, under the name of *makhredjé*, are appointed every year mollas or judges of the towns of JERUSALEM, ALEPPO, SMYRNA, LARISSA, SALONICA, SCUTARI, GALATA, and AIJUP. Four, among the latter, are afterwards named to the cities of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, CAIRO, and DAMASCUS, and the following year two of theſe become mollas of MECCA and of MEDINA: from among theſe laſt is taken the ſtambol-effendi. Thus it is that, ſucceſſively in their turn, they arrive at the places of kadileſker and even of mufti.

For a muderis to obtain the favour of paſſing to the moſque of *Suleïmani*, and run the career of high magiſtracy, he muſt be protected or ſhew ardent zeal for religion, diſtinguiſhed talents, great application to ſtudy, and very auſtere manners.

The mollas, the kadileſkers, and others who are not employed, and who are waiting their turn to be ſo, have appanages or benefices called *arpaliks*. Several obtain inferior tribunals, where they place naïbs who diſcharge their functions, and to whom they grant only a part of the income.

Frequently the pachas and great officers of ſtate cauſe one or more of their ſons to be received into the body of the ulemas, in order to have it in their power to tranſmit to them their property, and by theſe means withdraw it from the confiſcation which the ſultan has a right to make of it after their death. In this caſe, they content themſelves with calling under their roof profeſſors to inſtruct their ſons, and to make them undergo the examinations preſcribed by the law: they get them admitted as muderis, and, if favour ſecond their ambition, they cauſe them to paſs through all the ranks of mollas, without performing the duties of them, and without receiving the income, the place being occupied by another. The ſultan, always above the law, creates ulemas at pleaſure; which is the reaſon that, for ſome time paſt, there have been a great many ignorant mollas and cadis. The appointments of favour have been very prejudicial to that body, and have diminiſhed the conſideration which it enjoyed. It is no longer ſo formidable to the throne, as it was formerly; for a ſimple pacha frequently procures the exile of a cadi who counteracts him or oppoſes his will. It happens too that when the ſultan wiſhes to put to death an ulema whoſe zeal and courage give him umbrage, he endeavours by feigned careſſes, to make him accept a pachalik or any other employment: then become agent of the government, he orders his head to be cut off without any formality.

In

In ſome of the provincial towns, are muftis of a rank inferior to that of molla, whoſe functions conſiſt in interpreting the Koran, and its commentaries, aſſiſting at great aſſemblies, and giving their opinion on all the queſtions which are there agitated. Their opinions frequently differ in matters of juriſprudence, but they are nearly the ſame in religious affairs; which cauſes them all to be conſidered as orthodox. They are appointed for life by the mufti of the capital, and have fixed ſalaries. They are not judges of the town where they are placed; they are there only as lawyers. They are muderis, and as ſuch aſſociated to the body of the ulemas; but they have renounced magiſtracy, and can obtain no other advancement than that of being ſent by favour into a town more conſiderable.

The immediate miniſters of religion, as I have before mentioned, make no part of the body of ulemas: they can, nevertheleſs, be admitted into it, either by undergoing examinations and getting themſelves received as muderis, or by obtaining through favour a place of provincial mufti, of cadi, or of naïb. If, after having occupied with diſtinction theſe employments, they get themſelves admitted into the body of the muderis, and wiſh to paſs to the moſque of SOLIMAN, they can then arrive at the moſt eminent places of judicature. The firſt rank among them is that of *ſcheik* or preacher, whoſe function is to preach in the moſques every Friday after the noon prayer, and even oftener when there are foundations for that purpoſe. The ſcheiks of the fourteen imperial moſques of CONSTANTINOPLE are the moſt conſidered in the empire, and are appointed by the mufti; thoſe of the other moſques are named by the magiſtrate of the place or of the diſtrict.

The *khatibs* have no other employment than that of diſcharging, in imitation of the prophet and of the firſt caliphs, and in the place of the ſultan who repreſents them, the functions of *imameth* or of the prieſthood, at the ſolemn prayer which takes place on the Friday, and of reciting the *khoutbé*

or public profeſſion reſpecting the unity and the attributes of the Supreme Being, accompanied by a prayer for the preſervation and proſperity of the ſultan, and for the ſucceſs of his arms againſt the infidels. They are appointed by a *khatty-ſcherif* ſigned by the hand of the ſultan.

The *iman* recites in a loud voice, in the moſque, five times a day, except at the ſolemn Friday's prayer, the *namaz*, which the perſons preſent repeat in a low tone; he at the ſame time performs the ceremonies which accompany that prayer; he aſſiſts at circumciſion and interments; in a word, he diſcharges all the functions which worſhip requires.

In the early ages of Mahometaniſm, *iman* ſignified and deſignated the pontiff or the ſupreme chief of Iſlamiſm: the ſucceſſors of the firſt four caliphs took only the title of *iman-ul-muſlimin*, pontiff of the Muſſulmans. The doctors and interpreters of the law were afterwards decorated with it, and, for ſome time paſt, it has no longer been given to any but the miniſters of religion.

The functions of *muezim* are to aſcend five times a day to the minaret, there to proclaim aloud the profeſſion of faith of MAHOMET, invite the Muſſulmans to prayer, and ſing, on feſtivals, different hymns. For that purpoſe, young men, whoſe voice is ſtrong, clear, and ſonorous, are choſen; for the Turks take a great pleaſure in hearing good ſinging on the minarets. In the little moſques, the muezims ſweep and arrange the carpets, light the lamps, &c.; but this function, in the great ones, is reſerved for other young men called *cayims*. In the greater part of the villages, and even in ſome moſques of the towns, whoſe revenue is too limited, the iman diſcharges at the ſame time the functions of ſcheik, khatib, iman, muezim, and cayim. The moſques of the ſecond order, called *mesjids*, have no need of a khatib, becauſe they have not the right to celebrate the ſolemn prayer of Friday.

In

In TURKEY, are not known that multitude of counſellors, attornies, clerks, bailiffs, judges in the firſt, ſecond, and third inſtance, who, in EUROPE, multiply, without end, the expenſes of a trial, and that chicane, thoſe ſubtleties, thoſe forms, thoſe delays, thoſe appeals, which render them interminable: neither are there known thoſe officious defenders, often worſe than the counſellors and attornies whoſe place they have ſupplied among us, and whoſe greedy cupidity ſometimes leaves to the man, too ſimple or too ſanguine, nothing but tears to ſhed and regret to expreſs.

A *mékemé* or tribunal of juſtice is compoſed of a judge molla, cadi, or naïb, and of one or ſeveral writers. Almoſt all cauſes, as well civil as criminal, are determined according to the depoſition of two or more witneſſes. Every writing is of no value, and is not admitted in juſtice, if it bear not the ſignature or the ſeal of two perſons known and ſettled as houſekeepers. The parties preſent themſelves, plead their cauſe, which is tried without appeal, and without any other expenſe than ten per cent. of the ſum or the value in diſpute. The judge appropriates to himſelf a fine more or leſs heavy, when there is no queſtion of an affair of intereſt: and, in order that he may not loſe his fees, it is always the gainer of the cauſe who pays the coſts.

In a country where the laws are ſimple and by no means numerous, where the rights of all are traced in a book underſtood to be written by the hand of the meſſenger of God, trials muſt be far from complicated, rather rare, and eaſy to be avoided. Every one knows the extent of his duties, and the limits of his rights. Every one can be his own judge, when he does not give way to a vicious inclination, when he is not miſled by diſhoneſty.

But it muſt be confeſſed that if trials are more rare and leſs expenſive than among us, if the ſame day which witneſſes the origin of a diſpute ſees, in

a man-

a manner, its termination, juſtice is not, on that account, better adminiſtered: the venality of all employments has introduced into every profeſſion and into every claſs of the inhabitants of this empire, an avidity for gain and ſuch a corruption, that the ſmalleſt favour, the ſmalleſt ſervice are obtained only by preſents. A perſon purchaſes the ſentence of the judge and the depoſition of the witneſſes, as you purchaſe an employment, as you purchaſe the favour of a man in place. In no country on earth are falſe witneſſes ſo common and ſo ſhameleſs as in TURKEY, and it ſeldom happens that a cadi or a molla is bold enough to reſiſt the will of a pacha, or the ſolicitations of a great man, and virtuous enough to diſdain the gold which is offered them by the pleaders.

The Muſſulmans have ſuch a contempt for all thoſe who profeſs a religion different from theirs, that they do not, in general, admit as evidence, in affairs which concern them, Jews and Chriſtians, in oppoſition to Turkiſh witneſſes; or if they admit them ſometimes, they have ſo little reſpect for them, that ten witneſſes, among them, are not worth one ſingle Muſſulman witneſs. It is the ſame in the affairs which do not regard them: the teſtimony of a Muſſulman cannot, in any caſe, be balanced by that of ſeveral Jews or Chriſtians.

TOURNEFORT was miſtaken, when he ſays that, at CONSTANTINOPLE, a perſon could appeal from the ſentence of a cadi: Europeans alone enjoy that advantage, when the ſum in litigation exceeds 4000 aſpres or nearly the value of 66 livres, ſuppoſing the piaſtre at 2 livres. In all the towns of TURKEY, the molla, the cadi, and the ſimple naïb, judge without appeal: they condemn to fines, to corporal puniſhments, or to death, without the delinquent or perſon accuſed having it in his power to have recourſe to another tribunal.

Europeans

Europeans have alſo the advantage of paying no more than three per cent. in lieu of ten, which is paid by all the inhabitants of the country; but it may eaſily be conceived that a judge, ever ready to receive money from one of the parties, cannot bring himſelf to decide a cauſe in favour of an European, if he do not promiſe him beforehand the ten per cent. and even a preſent calculated on the importance of the trial.

The merchants are, in general, averſe to carrying their diſputes to the capital, becauſe they are not willing to go far from the place of their occupations, and becauſe they rather frequently miſtruſt the probity and the zeal of the droguemans charged, in that caſe, with preſenting their cauſe at the audience of the viſir, and with proſecuting the trial of it. They prefer making ſacrifices which are prejudicial to commerce in general, becauſe the diſhoneſt man who cheats with impunity, very often finds imitators; whence it follows that confidence is deſtroyed, credit becomes more rare, and the operations of trade diminiſh, or preſent many more difficulties.

The formula obſerved in all caſes by lawyers, conſiſts in the clear and ſimple expoſition of the fact, preſented to the judge by one of his clerks: the anſwer which he puts at the bottom in a few words, is only the application of the law. The ſentence pronounced in a mékemé is called *ilam*, and the order ſignified to a perſon to repair to the tribunal, to pay ſuch a ſum, to go to priſon, &c. is called *muraſſelé*.

The muftis of the provinces frequently aſſiſt at the mékemés, and are conſulted in matters purely religious, and in affairs of high importance; but it is always the ordinary judge who pronounces the ilam.

There are divers tribunals in the remote quarters and in the ſuburbs of CONSTANTINOPLE, where a naïb tries without appeal all the cauſes which are

are prefented. Every one has, nevertheleſs, the right to carry his affair directly to the ſtambol-effendi, molla or judge of CONSTANTINOPLE, or to the kadileſker of ROMANIA: but a great number prefer carrying it to the *divan* of the grand viſir, that is to ſay, to the PORTE or to the *arzodaſſé*, that is, to the audience-chamber of the grand-viſir, although in theſe laſt two caſes, it is the kadileſker of ROMANIA who pronounces the ſentence: that of NATOLIA is preſent without pronouncing; he is merely conſulted in affairs a little intricate.

What determines people to carry an affair into the two tribunals of the grand-viſir, is that falſe witneſſes dread to come thither, becauſe, being interrogated in his preſence, he can ſend them to priſon, order them to be cudgelled, and even cauſe their hands to be cut off if he perceive that they give a falſe evidence; while the judges have not the ſame right, but ſometimes find themſelves compelled to pronounce their ſentence according to the depoſition of the witneſſes, notwithſtanding the conviction which they have of their diſhoneſty.

The two kadileſkers aſſiſt on Friday only at the divan and the arzodaſſé of the grand-viſir. The ſtambol-effendi and the mollas of GALATA, SCUTARI, and AIJUB aſſiſt there on Wedneſday, and, like the others, ſit firſt at the arzodaſſé, and then at the divan. The ſtambol-effendi pronounces the ſentences on that day, as the kadileſker of ROMANIA pronounces them on the Friday.

Every judge, in his department, cauſes to be performed by one of his writers the duties of *caſſam*, which conſiſt in preſenting themſelves at the houſes of all the deceaſed in order to affix ſeals, make out an inventory of the inheritance, and diſtribute it to the right heirs, according to the laws, or according to the intentions of the teſtator.

When

When a pacha or any other agent of the government dies, his property belongs of right to the public treasury, because the law supposes that this property arises from the public money, or from extortions committed on the people; which is almost always true in TURKEY. The sultan sends a capidgibachi or one of his pages, to recover it; but he never touches the personals, the jewels, and property which belong to the women. He even rather frequently grants a part of the property to the children, as a reward for the services of the father; and sometimes he gives up to them the whole, when the succession is scarcely sufficient for their wants. On the death of the reis-effendi RASCHID, which happened in the year VI. (1798) a little time before our departure from CONSTANTINOPLE, sultan SELIM contented himself with taking a rich cangear *: he gave up to the family the sum of thirty purses (30,000 livres or 1250l. sterling) which RASCHID owed to the mint, and made them a present besides of eighty purses (80,000 livres or 2334l. sterling,) through gratitude for the services, the zeal, and the talents of that minister.

It frequently happens that an arrangement is made, by which the relations of the deceased keep all the property that he had, for a sum of money paid into the public treasury; and often, through this very arrangement, the son succeeds to the employment of the father.

When an agent of the government has caused to be received into the body of the ulemas one or more of his sons, the property which he has settled on them, the purchases which he has made in their name, belong to them, and the imperial treasury always respects them. As for the mollas and the cadis, as we have before said, through a prerogative attached to their body, all their property is transmitted entire to their children or their heirs, whatever may be their profession or their rank in society.

* A large knife which the Mussulmans wear in their girdle, the handle of which is n silver, gold, ivory, jasper, or coral, enriched with emeralds, rubies, and diamonds.

 This

This prerogative, attached to the body of the ulemas, muſt neceſſarily, in a few generations, accumulate immenſe riches in the hands of ſome individuals, if the ſon followed the career of his father, and limited his ambition to occupying the eminent, lucrative, and honourable places of magiſtracy; but almoſt all, in the view of obtaining greater conſequence, and more extenſive power, diſdain the employments of their father, and ſolicit places of miniſter and pacha, which they almoſt always obtain by means of their riches. Then become agents of the government, all their property returns, at their death, into the public treaſury, and the children are left at the mercy of the ſultan.

A Muſſulman or any other ſubject, who poſſeſſes no adminiſtrative or military place, is maſter of his property, and tranſmits it to his heirs: he may diſpoſe, if he chooſes, of a third of his fortune, when he has children or relations, and of the whole when he has none at all. If he die inteſtate and without natural known heirs, the *beitalmaldgi*, or farmer of caſual property, cauſes a ſale to be made of his effects, moveable or immoveable, of which the *caſſam* makes a memorandum, and takes poſſeſſion of their produce in the name of the imperial treaſury. Should an heir ſome time after preſent himſelf, who can prove to the mékemé his relationſhip, the *beitalmaldgi* is obliged to reſtore the property of the deceaſed. There are, for theſe little ſucceſſions, particular farms, united, in the provinces, to the other rights of the pachas, mutſelims, or waiwodes. CONSTANTINOPLE, on account of its extent, has a particular farmer for that object; but if the ſucceſſion exceed 2500 piaſtres (5000 livres or 208l. ſterling) the farmer has not the right of appropriating it to himſelf; it is paid directly into the public treaſury.

There are four caſes in which inheritance cannot take place: theſe are when there is, 1. difference of religion: 2. difference of country: 3. ſlavery: 4. aſſaſſination or poiſoning.

1. A Chriſtian, a Jew, or a Muſſulman cannot inherit the one from the other. A father and his ſons, or two brothers, of different religion, cannot tranſmit to each other their ſucceſſions. The Greeks and the Armenians, Schiſmatic or Roman, being conſidered by the law, as Chriſtians, cannot ſucceed to each other.

2. By difference of country, is underſtood Muſſulman country, and country not Muſſulman. A man charged with a miſſion by the government, or abſent for affairs of trade, without an intention of expatriating himſelf, is not excluded from the right of inheritance.

3. A ſlave cannot inherit from his maſter, as long as he is in a ſtate of ſlavery.

4. A perſon cannot inherit from his parent whom he may have killed or poiſoned, although he were abſolved of the crime.

CHAPTER XVII.

Of the pachas, waiwodes, and mutſelims.—Of the beylers-beys, ſangiaks-beys, zaïms, and timariots —Of the janizaries, ſpahis, and other military men.—Limits of the power of the ſultan and of the pachas:

If the judicial power, as well as the religious, reſides in the hands of the ulemas, the pachas unite the military power with the adminiſtrative: they are governors, military commanders, and intendants of their provinces; and, through an abuſe infinitely prejudicial to the intereſts of the people, the greater part of them hold at the ſame time the general farm of the taxes. The pacha with three tails is inveſted with a very great authority; he has, like the ſultan whom he repreſents, the terrible right of puniſhing with death all the agents that he employs, without any other formality than that of giving an account to the ſultan of the motives which determined him to this act of juſtice, ſeverity, or rigour. He maintains a military eſtabliſhment more or leſs numerous, according to the poſition and the revenues of the pachalik, and marches at the head of the armed force of all his department when he is required to do ſo by the ſovereign, or when the frontier is threatened. He ſuperintends the aſſeſſment of the taxes, the repairing and the keeping in order of public edifices, fortreſſes, &c.

The pacha with two tails has not a power ſo extenſive, nor a department ſo conſiderable: he cannot put any one to death without a legal trial; he is, like another, chief of the armed force of his department; but when he takes the field, he is obliged to unite his ſtandards to thoſe of the pacha with three tails, and to march under his orders.

The

The mutſelim is a deputy-governor, a lieutenant of the pacha; he enjoys, in his diſtrict, all the rights given him by the power of execution: he is chief of the armed force; but he is ſubject in every thing to the pacha on whom he depends, and whoſe orders he receives.

The waiwode is governor of a ſmall province, or of a town which, not making part of a pachalik, is ſometimes the appanage of a ſultana, of the grand viſir, of the captain-pacha, or of any other great officer of the empire. He enjoys all the prerogatives of a pacha with two tails, but he occupies an inferior rank. When he is required to march at the head of the armed force of his department, he joins his colours to thoſe of the pacha with three tails. Both the one and the other are charged with carrying into execution, in their provinces, the ſentences pronounced by the judges.

In the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, the Muſſulman or Greek ſimply charged by the PORTE with the gathering of the tax and with the police of the place, is likewiſe diſtinguiſhed by the name of waiwode.

To the governors of provinces were formerly given indifferently the names of pacha and of *beyler-bey*: the latter at this day is reſerved for the pachas of MANASTIR and of CUTAYÉ: they have the pre-eminence over the other pachas, and generally command the troops which are brought into the field. The beyler-bey of MANASTIR has under his orders the European troops, and the beyler-bey of CUTAYÉ thoſe of ASIA. They are, nevertheleſs, ſubordinate to the grand-viſir when the latter takes the general command of the armies.

A pachalik is divided as to the military part, into a certain number of diſtricts called *ſangiaks* or *ſtandards*. The janizaries, the ſpahis, the zaïms, and the timiariots of the diſtrict are obliged, in caſe of war, to unite under the colours

colours of the military commander, called *ſangiak-bey*, and to wait for the commands of the pacha of the province, in order to march againſt the enemy, puniſh ſome rebel, or ſubdue ſome revolted province.

In proportion as the Turks drove the Greeks from ASIA MINOR and EUROPE, and eſtabliſhed themſelves on their territory, they created a ſort of feudal ſyſtem no leſs oppreſſive than that from which our anceſtors have had ſo long to ſuffer. Maſters, according to their cuſtoms, of the fortune, of the liberty, and of the life of the people that they had conquered, the ſultans diſpoſed at their pleaſure, after each victory, of the lands which they had juſt united to their empire: they granted for ever, without quitrent, ſome portions of them near the towns and within their walls, to the officers and ſoldiers whoſe zeal and bravery they wiſhed to reward: they deſtined a tolerably great number of them to religious worſhip; they reſerved ſome, as an appanage, for the great adminiſtrative and judicial employments; they erected others into lordſhips, under the names of *zaïm* and *timar*, to be given for life, as military rewards and encouragements.

Almoſt all the rich Greeks were diſpoſſeſſed of their property: moſt of the opulent men were unmercifully murdered, and their eſtates confiſcated. As for the lands divided into ſmall portions, ſome were the prey of the conqueror, the others remained in the hands of their old proprietors, with the power for all to tranſmit them to their heirs, to ſell them and exchange them; but they were oppreſſed by an annual quitrent; namely, by a fifth of their produce for the rayas or infidels, and by a ſeventh only for thoſe which fell to the Muſſulmans.

Thoſe who poſſeſs a zaïm or a timar, are honoured with the title of aga: they are bound to a military perſonal ſervice, and obliged to bring with them, to war, one or more *gébélis*, horſemen or foot-ſoldiers, armed and equipped according

cording to the revenue and extent of the lordſhip. The timar differs in no reſpect from the zaïm, except that it is of leſs value, and that the aga who poſſeſſes it, does not arm as many horſemen and foot-ſoldiers as the other.

The number of zaïms, in TURKEY in EUROPE, is nine hundred and fourteen, and that of the timars is eight thouſand three hundred and fifty-ſix. Nearly the ſame number is reckoned in ASIA; which furniſhes, with the gébélis, a militia of upwards of ſixty thouſand men better diſciplined and more inured to war than the ſpahis and the janizaries. This militia for a long time conſtituted the principal force of the Ottoman Empire: to this it is principally that the firſt ſultans were indebted for the aſtoniſhing ſucceſs of their arms, and the rapid progreſs which they made in a little time in ASIA, in EUROPE, and even in AFRICA.

On the death of a ziamet or of a timiariot, the ſultan is to draw a year's revenue from the lordſhip, and, nevertheleſs, give it up again to the ſon of an aga, a ſpahis or any other military man, eſpecially to him who, by a brilliant action, has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in a battle; who has mounted the firſt to the aſſault, has penetrated into the enemy's entrenchments, has killed a great number of infidels, or contributed to put them to the rout. But ſince the ſultans prefer to the fatigues of war, to the dangers of battle, the tranquillity of their ſeraglio, and the pleaſures of their harem; ſince, above all, a mean and inconſiderate cupidity has cauſed to be put up to auction the places intended formerly for valour and merit, the lordſhips are become the patrimony of the rich and of intriguers. The courage of the ſoldier has no longer been ſtimulated by the hope of plunder, that of making priſoners or of obtaining a few pieces of money which the general ſometimes cauſes to be diſtributed after the battle, to thoſe who have brought in enemies' heads. Thus it is that the beſt inſtitutions degenerate; thus it is that the Muſſulman formerly intrepid and valiant, is no longer any thing but a vile plunderer or a ferocious aſſaſſin;

thus

thus it is that the Ottoman armies, ſo formidable to their enemies, are become an object of contempt or pity, and that this vaſt empire would already no longer be in exiſtence, were not ſome European powers intereſted in its ſupport.

The aga at the preſent day obtains, in his life-time, with tolerable facility, the grant of the lordſhip which he enjoys, in favour of one or more of his ſons, for a ſum of money inferior to that which is paid when it is put up to auction; but if he neglect this precaution, at his death his ſon is diſpoſſeſſed if he do not outbid the competitors, or if, powerfully protected, he do not at leaſt pay the price offered by another.

Moſt of the agas, little accuſtomed to the fatigues of war and to the privations which it neceſſitates, for a long time paſt have exempted themſelves, under various pretexts, from military ſervice: they always find the pachas and the ſangiaks-beys diſpoſed to receive a preſent from them, and grant them the exemption which they requeſt. They frequently get their place ſupplied by ſome volunteer, or if they themſelves join their colours, they never want pretexts for quitting them before the end of the campaign and returning to their home.

The cultivators are free and independent, in conſideration of the quitrent to which they are ſubject; they may eſtabliſh whatever culture they think the moſt ſuitable to their intereſts, without the aga having a right to moleſt them; but too frequently the latter abuſes his influence, his riches, and above all the police which he exerciſes in his village. He exacts, with the rod in his hand, for particular lands which he poſſeſſes, the gratuitous labour of the cultivators: he cauſes proviſions, wine excepted *, to be ſold to him at the

* Muſſulmans are forbidden to make, drink, or purchaſe wine.

price

price which he himſelf determines; he makes the advances of the karatch* at an intereſt extremely uſurious; in a word, he torments in a thouſand ways the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews of his village; but he is more reſerved towards the Muſſulmans, becauſe the complaints of the latter are always more favourably heard, becauſe he would infallibly be removed from his office, and even more ſeverely puniſhed, if all the Turks of the village, protected or ſupported by ſome powerful enemy of the aga, roſe at the ſame time and demanded juſtice.

Throughout the whole empire there are two ſorts of organized troops, the one of cavalry, the other of infantry, the ſpahis and the janizaries. The former are ſpread over all the towns, and more particularly in the country-places: they are almoſt all married and ſettled; they exerciſe different profeſſions or ſometimes apply themſelves to the culture of the land; they receive a daily pay, have their officers, and aſſemble at the firſt order, armed and equipped, under the colours of their diſtrict.

The ſpahis are a more ancient corps than the janizaries: they have more pay, and are underſtood to be the ſons of Muſſulmans in a certain degree of affluence; they fight under the ſame enſigns as the ziamets and the timariots, and ought to ſucceed them in the poſſeſſion of their fiefs, if the regulations of the firſt ſultans were more reſpected, or the national intereſt a little more conſulted.

Under the firſt ſultans, the ſpahis formed the principal ſtrength of the Ottoman armies. Almoſt always in the field, familiarized to military exerciſes, hardened to the fatigues of war, ſtimulated by intereſt, glory, religious fanaticiſm, and by the example of the ſultan, it is not ſurpriſing that nothing ſhould

* Capitation or perſonal impoſt to which non-Muſſulmans are ſubject.

 withſtand

withſtand their arms, and that the Greeks, enervated by luxury and riches, ſolely occupied by intrigues and theological queſtions, ſhould be as ſoon ſubjugated as conquered.

In the reign of AMURAT I. a fifth part of all the priſoners was begun to be taken for the purpoſe of forming a new corps of infantry, under the name of *yenitcheri*, janizaries, or new militia. The neceſſities of the war afterwards produced another law which incorporated in this corps a tenth part of the children of the Chriſtians, and which was in vigour till the reign of AMURAT IV. Under that of SOLIMAN I. there were already one hundred and ſixty-one *odas* * of janizaries at CONSTANTINOPLE, each of which contained from three to five hundred perſons.

At preſent none but Muſſulmans are received into this militia: they are ſcattered and organized in all the towns. Thoſe who inſcribe their names in it receive a daily pay, and join their colours whenever they are required. In the large towns and in the fortreſſes, they are divided into chambers; they are ſubject to patroles, to different expeditions, to the guard of gates, &c. The greater part are married, ſettled, and exerciſe different profeſſions. Theſe renounce all promotion, and generally exempt themſelves, under various pretexts, from joining their colours.

Many rich perſons, in the towns, enliſt among the janizaries, in the view only of being more effectually protected, and of enjoying all the privileges attached to that corps. They receive no pay, and, for a little money, eaſily exempt themſelves from all military ſervice.

The commandant-general of this troop is called *janizary-aga*; he reſides at CONSTANTINOPLE; and, although he enjoys great power, and great conſider-

* *Oda*, chamber, or company.

ation,

ation, he has a rank inferior to that of pacha. In moſt of the towns where the pachas with three tails reſide, there is likewiſe a janizary-aga, diviſional general of the infantry of the whole province. He is ſubject to the pacha, whoſe orders he receives and executes.

During ſeveral reigns, religious fanaticiſm, the hope of plunder, and the preſence of the ſovereign rendered the janizaries extremely formidable. They flew to arms with joy, and eagerneſs, whenever the ſtandard of MAHOMET was diſplayed, and the queſtion was to make war againſt the infidels; but ſince European tactics have made a progreſs which the ignorance of the Turks could not or would not follow, and ſince, above all, the bonds of the empire are broken or relaxed, the warlike ardour of the janizaries is much damped. This corps, formidable for ſuch a length of time, is no longer any thing but a ſhapeleſs maſs of workmen, ſhop-keepers, farmers, and boatmen, without either diſcipline or courage, and ever ready to deſert or mutiny againſt their officers.

For ſome time paſt there has been formed a corps of infantry of upwards of thirty thouſand men, under the name of *topchis* or gunners. Scattered over the capital and the reſt of the empire, they receive a moderate pay, and are obliged to join their colours when they receive orders for that purpoſe.

Independently of the other corps of troops, as well on foot as on horſeback, which are raiſed in time of war, or which the pachas keep in their ſervice, are to be diſtinguiſhed the *ſélictars*, a corps of cavalry, leſs numerous and leſs ſcattered than that of the ſpahis, and the *délis* or *délibaches* *, volunteers on horſeback in the ſervice of the pachas. Theſe délis are brave, determined,

* Deli, in Turkiſh, ſignifies *mad*, and délibache, *mad-headed*.

enterprifing, and ever ready to execute the orders of their mafter in the expeditions which he commands, and in the extortions which he directs. They follow him to war, perform the office of light troops, and fight without order and without difcipline: they ftop and bring back to battle the runaways, and frequently precipitate themfelves into the enemy's ranks, with a boldnefs which aftonifhes and which fometimes determines the victory in their favour.

When a pacha is difgraced, or when, from any motive, he difmiffes his délibaches, as they are without pay and without refources, they then commit the moft terrible robberies; they fpread themfelves over the fields, the villages, and even the towns; they rob indifcriminately, lay all under contribution, and ftop and plunder the caravans, till they are called into the fervice of fome other pacha, or till fome impofing force has put them to flight and difperfed them.

In the moft defpotic empire, the will of the fovereign is limited, circumfcribed or fettered by laws and cuftoms which he cannot call in queftion without danger: fuch is the Ottoman Empire. As fucceffor of the caliphs, the fultan unites in himfelf every power; he is fovereign abfolute, legiflator, pontiff, and fupreme chief of religion: he may create, change, and modify, according to his wifh or his caprice, the laws of the State: he eftablifhes the impofts and taxes which he judges neceffary: he difpofes at his pleafure of the eminent places, adminiftrative and military, religious and judicial of the empire: he is mafter of the life and of the fortune of all his officers and of all the agents that he keeps in pay; however, he would find infurmountable obftacles if he meddled with the fundamental laws depofited in the book of the prophet, and even with moft of thofe which cuftom immemorial has rendered, as it were, as facred as the others. In eftablifhing impofts, he takes care not to overburden the people, ever ready to manifeft

their indignation, to rife, to demand the head of the vifir, to depofe the ful-tan, and proceed to all forts of exceffes. In the appointment of lawyers, he generally refpects rank and feniority of fervice, becaufe he would be afraid to irritate and ftir up to rebellion the auguft and formidable body of the ulemas: in fhort, he neither can legally put to death a fimple individual nor ufurp his property, without a previous trial, without a fentence of the lawyers.

It has, nevertheleefs, happened more than once that the Grand Signior, the vizir, the captain-pacha, the pachas with three tails, have put to death citi-zens without trial: but thefe cafes are rare, and are not without danger. The hiftory of this people prefents a crowd of examples of fultans aud vifirs killed or depofed for acts of injuftice and extortions, a little too revolting. The com-plaints of the people have frequently forced the fultan to facrifice to his own fafety a minifter, a favourite, whofe crimes fometimes have been no more than a blind fubmiffion to the will of their mafter.

The prefence of the fovereign, a greater mafs of knowledge, an immenfe population, the divifion of intereft, favour, and power, occafion defpotifm, at CONSTANTINOPLE, not to be fo calamitous, nor fo terrible as in the pro-vinces, becaufe the fultan watches over his minifters, becaufe the people league together and revolt with fuccefs againft their oppreffors, becaufe they almoft always find a fupport in the jealoufy, ambition, or probity of fome man in power. But a pacha in his province, at a diftance from the looks of his fovereign, mafter of all the armed force, and invefted with powers almoft unlimited, feldom finds in the tribunal of juftice, in the affembly of notables, and in the enterprifes of the people, a dam fufficiently ftrong to con-fine him within the limits of his duties.

Too

Too frequently the pacha, by his courage, his boldneſs, and his intereſt, contrives to ſilence the judge and the honeſt men, to paralyze the good intentions of the divan, and to make the people whom he oppreſſes tremble: too frequently too the obſtacles which the laws wiſely oppoſe to his ambition, and his wickedneſs, remain without effect through the connivance of the prevaricating judge, of the divan charged to watch over the intereſts of the people: then acts of violence and injuſtice no longer have bounds, eſpecially if the pacha be powerfully ſupported by the PORTE, and if he have in his ſervice a great number of *délibaches* ever ready to execute his orders, and defend him in caſe of attack. However, when acts of injuſtice excite an indignation too ſtrongly marked, the pacha endeavours to appeaſe it by diſavowing the officer executor of his orders, by removing him, and even by putting him to death. It is the Chriſtians who have always moſt to ſuffer, becauſe they are not ſupported like the Muſſulmans, and becauſe they find a greater difficulty in tranſmitting to the foot of the throne their juſt complaints. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews form between themſelves corporations the chiefs of which make a few efforts to put a ſtop to the extortions of a governor, to cauſe him to be recalled or puniſhed; but too frequently their remonſtrances remain without effect, or tend only to render their ſituation ſtill worſe.

The impunity of the pachas has been ſuch for ſome time paſt, that the greater part of them have taken the liberty to ſet up a powerful military eſtabliſhment which requires conſiderable expenſes, far above the legal produce of their pachaliks. Extortions have increaſed in proportion to the number of perſons that they had to maintain; they have, by dint of money, obtained from the PORTE the junction of all the employments of the province; they are *mouhaſſils* or farmers-general; they have got themſelves confirmed every year in their places, and ſome have ended by acquiring riches ſo conſiderable, and ſuch an authority, that the ſultan cannot find means to diſplace them or put them

them to death. But this violent ſtate of things muſt neceſſarily have a period: the inhabitants of the country-places, overburdened with impoſts, moleſted in their fortune, and threatened in their life, imperceptibly forſake the lands which can no longer ſupport them; they go into the great towns to ſeek that repoſe which they have loſt in their cottages, and the means of living which they no longer find in the culture of their lands. However, the pacha exacts the ſame contributions, and compels thoſe who remain, to pay for thoſe who have fled: whence it follows, that all the inhabitants ſoon diſappear, and that the village is for ever deſerted. There is no part of the empire, at a little diſtance from the capital, that does not preſent the aſpect of the moſt complete devaſtation, that does not exhibit large plains without culture, hamlets, and villages deſtroyed, and without inhabitants.

It is not ſurpriſing that the governors of provinces neglect no means of ſqueezing the people, when they are obliged to purchaſe dearly that right, when they know that they cannot maintain themſelves in their place, or occupy others without making new pecuniary ſacrifices, when, in a word, the ſovereign ſells all the eminent places, and when, after his example, the miniſters and the men who diſpoſe of any employment, give it only to the higheſt bidder. Through a very old cuſtom which miſtruſt has, no doubt, introduced, every important place is granted only for a year: a new firman is neceſſary for a perſon to be kept in it. The pachas above all, whoſe extenſive power affords the means of ſkreening themſelves from the ſovereign authority, muſt be regularly changed every year, and the ſultan ſeldom deviates from this cuſtom when he has it in his power; but the pacha, on his ſide, knowing that gold, in TURKEY, can abſolve a man from the greateſt crimes, and cauſe the moſt revolting extortions and the moſt arbitrary condemnations to be forgotten, haſtens to amaſs it; and if to his criminal ambition he join courage, boldneſs, and talents, he obtains with the three tails, an eminent pachalik: he then endeavours to maintain himſelf in his poſt,

by

by preventing, on the one hand, the complaints refpecting his conduct from reaching the throne, and, on the other, by performing fcrupulouffly the engagements which he has contracted towards the imperial treafury; but if he fucceed, like the pachas of SCUTARI, PALESTINE, BAGDAD, and fo many others, in extending his government, and rendering it fufficiently productive to have an army, he obliges the fovereign to fpare him, to confirm him every year in his pachalik, and to preferve only the appearance of power. True it is that, in that cafe, the fultan employs his two great means, cunning and patience; he difpatches fecretly, and under various pretexts, *capidgis* to the pacha of whom he wifhes to be rid: if the latter be not fufficiently miftruftful for preventing any fufpicious man from approaching too near him, he receives the mortal blow, and the capidgi inftantly produces the firman of the Grand Signior, which all the by-ftanders, in their turn, kifs with refpect, and place on their head in token of fubmiffion.

What delays the ruin of the greater part of the provinces, are the *ayams*, (an Arabic word which fignifies *eye*,) whofe employment is to watch over the fafety and the fortune of individuals, over the good order and the defence of a town, to oppofe the unjuft enterprifes of the pachas, the exactions of the military, and to concur in the juft affeffment of the taxes. Appointed by the people, they are generally men reputed the moft virtuous, who undertake this honourable function: there are feveral of them in the great towns; a fingle one commonly unites feveral villages in the plains. The ayams receive no other reward for their zeal and their trouble, than the confideration, almoft always merited, which they enjoy, and the fatisfaction which an honeft man feels when he is ufeful to his fellow-creatures.

The ayams call to their divan the notables of the town and the lawyers, in order to difcufs fubjects of a very great intereft, to digeft with them the remonftrances to be made to the pacha, and to eftablifh in concert the

the motives of complaint which they judge neceſſary to be preſented againſt him to the PORTE.

What likewiſe contributes in the towns to the ſafety of the individuals who are not attached to the military ſervice, and who occupy no place emanating from the government, is that almoſt all the Muſſulmans, from the merchant down to the loweſt workman, belong to an organized corporation, the chiefs of which are charged to watch over the rights of the community and of individuals. If a butcher, a fruiterer, for inſtance, be attacked by any man of weight, the affair is carried to the mékemé or tribunal of juſtice. The chiefs preſent themſelves to defend the individual oppreſſed; they repreſent that from ſuch a period this man has been ſettled in the neighbourhood, that he has always led an exemplary life, that he is a good Muſſulman, a good father, a good huſband, and they aſſiſt at the hearing of the witneſſes; if they diſcover that the accuſed is really guilty, they retire, and give him up to the rigour of the laws: if they believe, on the contrary, that he is innocent, they defend him with courage, call in, if it be neceſſary, the whole corporation, and the oppreſſor is generally obliged to deſiſt from his purſuits. But, in the country-places, the people have not the ſame means; they muſt, in that caſe, have recourſe to the ayams or to the *kiaya* of the village, a ſort of municipal officer elected by the people, with whom reſt all the affairs of the hamlet, all the demands of money, &c.: it is generally the richeſt or the moſt intelligent of the village, who performs gratuitouſly this function. The greater part of the kiayas are reproached, perhaps with ſome reaſon, with having a ſecret underſtanding with the pachas, with facilitating their extortions, and enriching themſelves almoſt always at the expenſe of thoſe whom they ought to defend and protect.

The Jews and the Chriſtians have alſo organized corporations, whoſe chiefs frequently bring to a hearing the complaints of the oppreſſed; but it ſel-

dom happens that the moſt unjuſt accuſation is not terminated by ſome ſacrifices of money, unleſs the accuſed be protected by an European ambaſſador or conſul, or by ſome opulent Turk. Theſe unfortunate beings are through the whole empire, the cow which the Muſſulmans are eager to milk whenever their neceſſities require it.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Of the grand vifir.—Of the divan of the Porte, *and of the members of whom it is compofed.—Of the kodjakians and of the vacoufs.*

THE dignity which is on a footing with that of mufti or of fheik-iflam, but the powers of which are much more extenfive, is that of grand vifir or of vifir-azem. Being the lieutenant of the fultan, in whofe name he governs and from whom he holds the feal, invefted with the greateft authority, and intrufted with all the power of execution, the vifir may ftrike off the heads of perfons receiving falaries who oppofe the progrefs of the government, who throw obftacles in the way of its adminiftration, who do not obey its orders, or do not execute them according to its pleafure; he commands the armies in perfon; he difpofes of the finances; he names or caufes perfons to be named to all the adminiftrative and military employments. Nothing, in a word, is foreign to his powers, but the interpretation of the law intrufted to the ulemas.

But the greater the power of the grand vifir, the greater is his refponfibility. He is accountable both to the fovereign and to the people, for the acts of injuftice which he commits, for the unfortunate refult of his adminiftration, for the extortions which he does not prefs; he is accountable, above all, for the unexpected dearnefs of provifions, for too frequent fires, and for the defeats of the armies: all the misfortunes of the State are attributed to him. The fword, always fufpended over his head, ftrikes him equally whether he difpleafe the people, or difoblige the fultan.

Secretly attacked by thofe who are ambitious of his place, by thofe whom he has diffatisfied, or to whom he has done an ill office, furrounded by fnares, and expofed to every fhaft, it is extremely rare for a vifir to grow old in the dangerous poft which he occupies, if he poffefs not the difficult art of making the great tremble, of making himfelf beloved by the people, and of rendering himfelf neceffary to the fultan. How many might we inftance, whom intrigue has difplaced or caufed to perifh, whom the fultan has facrificed to his own fafety! How many vifirs does not hiftory afford us, whofe prefumptuous ignorance has occafioned the misfortunes of the State and accelerated their own ruin!

The other miniffers, obliged to confer with the grand vifir and to take his orders, difburden themfelves on him of all the refponfibility attached to their adminiftration, and the counfellors by whom he is furrounded cannot fave him when his ruin is refolved on. At liberty to follow or to reject their advice, there remain for him neither pretexts nor excufes: it is to him alone that the fovereign power is intrufted, it is to him alone to give an account.

The law and cuftom, as I have faid with regard to the fultan and the pachas, have put fome fhackles on the right which the vifir has to punifh with death all the agents, all the perfons in the pay of the government. Before he ftrikes off the head of a great perfonage of the empire, he muft have an order figned by the hand of the fultan; and when a military man is in queftion, he muft obtain the approbation of the commanders.

In the frequent excurfions which he makes incog. in the city for the purpofe of having an eye to good order, of informing himfelf of the ftate of the articles of food, examining the weights and meafures, and infpecting the conduct of the agents appointed for the diftribution of provifions, the vifir, accompanied by a public executioner, and fome officers difguifed like himfelf,

orders

orders delinquents to be apprehended and punifhed on the fpot: he calls out, if neceffary, the guard of the quarter; he directs the baftinado to be given to the fhopkeepers who vend aliments of bad quality; he caufes him who is found with falfe weights to be nailed by the ear againft the door of the fhop; he even punifhes with death relapfes or malverfations of too ferious a nature. During fires, he orders to be ftruck off the head of the thief caught in the very fact; but, in thofe cafes, the law has pronounced beforehand the penalty of death. Charged to liften to the complaints of individuals, to caufe juftice to be done to all, the vifir cannot, under any pretext, difpofe legally of the life and fortune of citizens. It is not that he does not too frequently abufe his authority; it is not that he does not fometimes yield to perfidious advice, that he does not fuffer himfelf to be led away by motives of hatred or revenge, that the thirft of gold does not impel him to arbitrary acts; but woe be to him if his injuftice be too revolting! When he too frequently puts himfelf above the laws, the people, in their turn, trample him under foot, unlefs the fultan be expeditious in adminiftering juftice.

At the head of the armies, far from the eye of the fovereign, the power of the grand vifir is difengaged from the forms which fometimes reftrain him in the capital, and it muft be confeffed that he has the utmoft need of there difplaying a very great feverity. The Muffulmans naturally turbulent and feditious, can be checked only by the fight of punifhments. If the heads of the mutineers, of the plunderers, and of the affaffins do not fall from time to time, fhortly the army no longer exhibits any but fcattered gangs of robbers who devaftate, with the fame avidity, the provinces of the empire and thofe belonging to the enemy.

The kadilefkers or ordinary judges of the army follow it only when the fultan commands it in perfon: a molla appointed for that purpofe always

difcharges

difcharges their functions when the vifir has the command. It is the fame when it is fubmitted to a pacha; but, in all cafes, death muft immediately follow the knowledge of the crime, and the fentence of the judge is but a fimple formality.

The grand vifir gives audience to the public on feveral days of the week; he hears the complaints of the citizens, admits or rejects their petitions, permits them to plead their caufe before the kadilefkers, the ftambol-effendi, and the mollas of GALATA, AIJUB, and SCUTARI, and to caufe juftice to be adminiftered to them with fufficient difpatch; but it is not correct to fay that he renders it himfelf. Unlefs it be an affair of police, or that the petitioners and the delinquents be agents of the government, the fentences are pronounced by the ordinary judges: the vifir caufes them to be executed as the pachas do in the provinces.

When the grand vifir is obliged to abfent himfelf in order to take the command of the army, the fultan appoints for the interim a caïmacan or fubftitute who difcharges his functions, is invefted with the fame authority, enjoys the fame rights, but not the fame revenues; his falary is fixed, and the emoluments of the place belong to the vifir, to whom the caïmacan muft give an account of them. It is generally a pacha with three tails who is appointed to this eminent place.

A very remarkable change has taken place in the government fince SELIM III. created a new council to which are at this day fubmitted all projects, to which are referred all important affairs, and from which emanate all the refolutions and, as it were, all the acts of the government. The refponfibility of the vifir muft have diminifhed with his power: the misfortunes of the State, the public calamities cannot henceforth be attributed to him; and if the

firft

firſt place of the Ottoman Empire continue to be changeable and tottering, it will at leaſt be no longer accompanied by the ſame dangers.

The divan or the council of the grand viſir was formerly compoſed of ſix ordinary viſirs or pachas with three tails, whoſe reputation for wiſdom and intelligence was not to be equivocal. The viſir aſked their opinion when he thought it neceſſary. To this council were likewiſe admitted the mufti and the two kadileſkers when the law was to be conſulted.

A little time after his acceſſion to the throne, SELIM compoſed this council of twelve perſons the moſt diſtinguiſhed by their office. The viſir and the mufti are preſidents of it, the one in his quality of lieutenant-general of the empire for temporal affairs; the other as vicar of the ſultan for the interpretation and depoſitory of the laws. The other ten members are the *kiaya-bey*, the *reis-effendi*, the *teſterdar-effendi*, the *tchélébi-effendi*, the *terſana-émini*, the *tchiaoux-bachi*, two *ex-reis-effendi*, and two *ex-teſterdars effendi*.

The kiaya-bey is, properly ſpeaking, the lieutenant of the viſir; he momentarily diſcharges his functions when the latter happens to die. All affairs paſs through his hands before they arrive at the viſir, and all orders emanating from the PORTE receive their execution through the impulſe of the kiaya-bey. He is appointed by the Grand Signior, on the preſentation of the viſir. He is generally involved in the diſgrace of his principal, and if he do not loſe his head as frequently as he, his fortune, in that caſe, always runs the greateſt riſk. Although he have no military rank, it may be ſaid that he occupies the ſecond adminiſtrative place in the empire, conſidering the importance and the multiplicity of his functions. If the ſultan be diſſatisfied with his ſervices, he receives, on quitting his office, the dignity of ſimple viſir or pacha with three tails. It ſeldom happens that he is given only the two tails when he is ſent to govern a province.

The

The reis-effendi is, as it were, ſecretary of ſtate, high chancellor of the empire, the principal of the *gens de plume* *, the miniſter for foreign affairs. He ſigns all the orders of the PORTE, which do not directly concern the finances and the military operations; he treats with all the European miniſters who are at CONSTANTINOPLE; in a word, every thing that concerns the foreign powers, and every thing that relates to the interior adminiſtration, paſſes through the channel of the reis effendi; but he does nothing without communicating it to the grand viſir and taking his orders.

The teſterdar-effendi muſt be conſidered as the miniſter of the finances; he receives the produce reſulting from the ſale of the great employments, that which ariſes from the annual renewal of the barats or firmans obtained by the zaïms, timariots, and others, the produce of the karatch or capitation-tax on the Jews and Chriſtians; the produce of the farmed domains, that of the cuſtoms, &c. He has a great number of offices into which are poured the different revenues of the empire, and at which are made the different payments ordered by the PORTE. There are at the head of each office, a great officer, principals and clerks taken from among the kodjakians or *gens de plume* of whom I ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak further on.

This miniſter cannot be confounded with the khaſné-veliki, a black eunuch, charged with the general adminiſtration of the interior imperial treaſure, into which are poured the produce of the confiſcations and inheritances that ſerve for the ſupport of the ſeraglio. The preſents, the effects, the jewels which are ſent by foreign powers, thoſe acquired by conqueſt, the colours, &c. conſtitute a part of this treaſure.

* As we have not in ENGLAND thoſe three diſtinctions, made in FRANCE, of *gens de plume*, *gens d'épée*, and *gens de robe*, we have deemed it more expedient to retain the French term than to employ one which might be ambiguous to the reader.—*Tranſlator.*

The

The private treasure of the sultan is administered by the khasnadar-aga, one of the pages of confidence. This treasure, increased by the savings of the greater part of the sultans, is supported by the profits of the mint and by some confiscations.

The place of tchélébi-effendi did not exist formerly; it was created under the reign of SELIM III, at the same time as the tax on wine, eatables, and most articles of merchandise, as cotton, wool, &c. The produce of this tax, known by the name of *nizam-djedit*, has been appropriated to the new corps of gunners, bombardiers, matrosses, and fusileers that has been formed, to the buildings which have been constructed for them, to the foundery of cannon, to the manufactory of muskets, gun-carriages, &c. The tchélébi-effendi is the receiver-general of this tax, the administrator of these funds, the inspector-general of these establishments, the intendant of the buildings.

I have said, in another place, that the tersana-émini was the minister of the marine.

The tchiaoux-bachi is secretary of state; it is to him that a person must address himself to see the grand visir, to be admitted to his divan, to plead at his tribunal. He has about him two *teskeredjis* who receive the memorials, the claims, the petitions of the pleaders and of all those who present themselves, and who administer justice according to the order of the visir.

The captain-pacha and the kiaya of the sultana-validai are called to the extraordinary councils; and although they are not ordinary members of the council, they are consulted, and both have the greatest influence in the deliberations from the interest which the former preserves with SELIM, and from that which the latter has obtained with the sultana-mother. The latter was born

poor in CANDIA. He is ſaid to be a man of underſtanding and very clever: he poſſeſſes, above all, the art of intrigue, and joins to his eaſy manners, an agreeable and prepoſſeſſing perſon.

SELIM, occupied with uſeful eſtabliſhments, ameliorations, and changes neceſſitated by the critical circumſtances in which he found himſelf on his acceſſion to the throne, could not doubt of the ſucceſs of his enterpriſes, in cauſing to emanate from a council formed by the moſt powerful and the moſt enlightened men of the empire, all the innovations that he wiſhed to introduce, all the beneficent laws that he wiſhed to have paſſed. Could he ſuſpect, that by rendering arbitrary acts leſs frequent, great executions more rare, by diminiſhing the too abſolute and too tyrannical power of the viſir, by ſubmitting to diſcuſſion all the operations of the government, by promulgating no law till it had, as it were, received the ſanction of his council, guilt would become more frequent, ambition more audacious, rebellion more difficult to be repreſſed, armies of robbers more numerous? Could he imagine, in a word, that the influence of foreign powers would be greater, and that it would ſucceed in ſtopping all the ſalutary meaſures that he wiſhed to have adopted?

This council, unfortunately compoſed of members enemies among themſelves, jealous of each other, more taken up with themſelves than with the happineſs of the State, is very far from having accompliſhed the intentions of SELIM. One would be inclined to believe, from ſeeing it ſometimes in inaction in the midſt of dangers, and ſometimes in a route contrary to that which it ought to follow, that moſt of the members, far from ſeconding the deſigns of the ſultan, labour, on the contrary, to make them miſcarry. Since its creation, the ſtate of affairs is daily becoming worſe; the empire is menaced with a total diſſolution; the finances are exhauſted; and a rebel already threatens to place a ſtranger on the throne. He is waiting, perhaps, only

only for the moment when the people ſhall be prepared for this extraordinary event, unexampled in the Turkiſh annals.

If, inſtead of eſtabliſhing a council too wavering, too weak, and too eaſy to be corrupted, SELIM could have intruſted authority to a viſir endowed with a rare underſtanding, a profound mind, a pure heart, a firm courage, and an unſhaken reſolution, it is not to be doubted that all his projects would have completely ſucceeded: the Ottoman Empire would have reſumed by degrees its rank among the powers of the earth; it would at leaſt have emerged from that ſtate of abjection and nullity in which it has been for ſeveral reigns: the troubles of the interior would not have taken place; the rebellious pachas would have returned to their duty, and the janizaries the moſt mutinous would have paid with their head the firſt movement of inſurrection which they ſhould have made.

It is very difficult to foreſee how the Ottoman Empire will extricate itſelf from the fatal criſis into which it has been brought. Will FRANCE, ſo much inclined formerly to ſupport it *, prevent the powers, which at this day appear to defend its intereſts with warmth, from making it ſoon undergo the fate of POLAND, or from taking from it at leaſt a part of its dominions?

The kodjakians or *gens de plume* form in the capital a numerous body, intelligent and reſpected; this is the profeſſion which holds the middle rank between the military men and the lawyers, and which is become ſufficiently powerful ſince the ulemas are rather leſs ſo, ſince the divan is compoſed

* The political and commercial intereſts which ſo long united FRANCE and the Ottoman Empire, have greatly changed ſince our eſtabliſhment in EGYPT, ſince above all that colony leads us to hope for a more advantageous trade than that which we carried on before, and enables us to ſtop the pretenſions which ENGLAND makes to the excluſive commerce of the whole world.

only of *gens de plume*, and ſince ſome among them obtain fiefs, military rank, and governments.

Almoſt all the miniſ rs, all the agents in the different adminiſtrations of the capital, the cuſtoms, and the moſques; all the principals of offices, all the ſecretaries, all the clerks, all the ſchoolmaſters; in a word, all the writers, from the ſimple *kiatib*, who copies books, petitions, or memorials, and him who applies himſelf to writing purely and correctly the language, to the reis-effendi who is at the head of them, are all diſtinguiſhed by the name of *kodja*, and make part of that ſort of corporation.

The art of tranſcribing the national books and eſpecially the Koran, forms the nurſery of the *gens de plume*. The number of copyiſts of theſe books is prodigious in the capital. Young men who have no fortune, and who are deſirous of embracing this profeſſion, after having learned to read and write in the ſchools, apply themſelves firſt to the copying and ſelling of books; they afterwards draw up petitions and memorials for thoſe who have occaſion for them. If they diſplay intelligence, and acquire information in this trade, they ſucceed in procuring themſelves a place in ſome office, and by degrees, with protectors, conduct, application, and, above all, money, they arrive at the firſt ſituations in the public offices, and at the firſt dignities in the miniſtry.

The Muſſulmans are indebted to the kodjas for a vaſt number of works held in great eſtimation among them, relative to the Arabic and Perſian languages, philoſophy, morality, Mahometan hiſtory, and the geography of their provinces; and it is among them that are generally found the ſtateſmen the moſt intelligent and the moſt capable of ſerving as miniſters.

The

The fear of depriving of their profeſſion this great number of copyiſts, the oppoſition of almoſt all the powerful *gens de plume*, the refuſal of the lawyers to ſuffer the Koran and the other books of religion to be printed, and, perhaps too, the averſion which the Muſſulmans manifeſt for the practices and the arts of Europeans, are ſo many motives which concur in preventing the art of printing from being eſtabliſhed among them in a ſubſtantial manner.

The *gens de plume* are entitled *kodjas* or *effendis*. The latter deſignates a man of a more diſtinguiſhed rank, him, for inſtance, who has arrived at the firſt places, the firſt dignities. This latter title is alſo given to the lawyers, to the imans of the moſque. *Effendi* is the word which diſtinguiſhes *gens de plume* and lawyers from military officers, to whom are given the appellation of *aga* and *bey*.

Favour often grants military fiefs to *gens de plume* little qualified, in general, for the fatigues of war: miniſters and other great perſonages alſo obtain ſometimes the dignities of pacha with two or three tails, without being fit to march at the head of the troops of their provinces. But as in TURKEY it is conſidered rather whether the place be fit for the man than the man for the place, no effendi makes it a point of delicacy to ſolicit theſe important poſts. What does it ſignify to them to have no military knowledge, provided they have a more diſtinguiſhed rank, a greater authority, and they have it in their power to acquire great riches? Neither are they ſtopped by the contempt which the ſoldiers manifeſt for them, and by the frequent ſarcaſms in which the latter indulge themſelves reſpecting them, not unfrequently even in their preſence.

The adminiſtration of the pious foundations called *vakfs* or *vacoufs*, employs a great number of *gens de plume*, and procures them a ſituation far more lucrative than honourable. Superſtition, religious zeal, and above all the tyrannical

rannical law of confiſcations have cauſed to be converted into vacoufs a great part of private property. Without ſpeaking of thoſe vaſt domains granted to religious worſhip, of thoſe villages, ſmall towns, and countries, whoſe produce is appropriated to the moſques, a great number of individuals give up to them during their life, or bequeath them after their death, a part or the whole of their fortune. But, guided more frequently by motives of intereſt than by a religious ſentiment, they make a donation of their property, for a moderate ſum which they receive from the moſque, and an annuity which they bind themſelves to pay to it. The enjoyment remains with the donee till the extinction of the heirs at law, in an order deſignated by the act.

The intention of the founder, in this caſe, has no other object than to put under the ſafeguard of religion, hitherto reſpected by the ſultans, a property which it is very eaſy for a perſon to preſerve and to tranſmit to his children. But ſooner or later, for the want of heirs, the vacouf property devolves to the moſques. If the law do not put a ſtop to theſe donations, or if the government do not one day appropriate them to itſelf, almoſt all the immoveable property of the empire will end by being appropriated to religious worſhip, or devoted to pious eſtabliſhments.

No foundation takes place without their being a *mutevelli* or adminiſtrator, and a *nazir* or inſpector, the one for the employment of the money according to the intention of the founder, and the other for the ſuperintendance and verification of the accounts. But, in a country where it is ſo rare to meet a man who reſiſts the wiſh of appropriating to himſelf a ſum of money which paſſes through his hands, and for which he is to account only to his conſcience and to an inſpector as knaviſh as himſelf, no one doubts that the mutevelli and the nazir have a ſecret underſtanding, divide between them what they can purloin, and appropriate to themſelves annually ſums more or leſs conſiderable, according to the importance of the foundations which they are charged to adminiſter and ſuperintend.

Little

Little ſatisfied with the right which is adjudged them by the founder, they think to be able to excuſe their criminal conduct by the inutility of the revenues which exceed the employment that is to be made of them, or perhaps they conſider as indifferent to the ſpirit of the foundation to retain for themſelves this exceſs, inſtead of diſtributing it to the poor, of making ſavings, or of improving the capital.

Moſt of the founders, with the twofold intention of tranſmitting to their heirs a certain revenue ſecure from the rapacious hand of the imperial treaſury, and of not enriching unknown adminiſtrators and inſpectors, nominate and appoint theſe agents in their own family. They take care, if they are attached to the government, to diſpoſe in reality of two thirds of the income of the property that they eſtabliſh *vacouf*, without which the government, which would diſcover the formal intention of depriving it of an immoveable property that it ought to inherit, would appropriate the whole of it to itſelf, to the prejudice even of the moſque named in the act of donation.

CHAPTER XIX.

Export-trade.—Alimentary ſubſtances.—Wood for fuel, joiner's work, carpenter's work, and ſhip-building.

THE little confidence inſpired by a government too frequently unjuſt; the little ſolidity preſented by the fortunes of private perſons, the certainty of loſing one's money if the man to whom it has been lent die in an employment, or if he be puniſhed with death for any miſdemeanour, real or ſuppoſed; the tyranny which is every where exerciſed by thoſe who are inveſted with power, the venality of the tribunals, the innumerable multitude of falſe witneſſes—every thing in TURKEY inſpires ſuch a miſtruſt in affairs of commerce, that a man lends not his money but at a very high intereſt, and delivers not his goods on credit but at an exorbitant price. Very frequently even no buſineſs takes place if the creditor be not provided beforehand with a pledge above the value of the money which he has lent, or of the goods which he has delivered on credit. The intereſt of money muſt have riſen in proportion to the riſks that the lender had to run: it is generally from eight to ten per cent. in regard to Europeans; from fifteen to twenty per cent. in regard to Muſſulman, Jew, Armenian, or Greek merchants; it is at thirty, forty, and even fifty per cent. in regard to the Turks who belong to the government. To private perſons money is lent at twenty-five or thirty per cent. but almoſt always in towns, pledges are required for the ſecurity of the debt.

Honeſty, however, is not entirely baniſhed from the Ottoman Empire. The European merchants know that the countryman almoſt always performs without difficulty the engagements which he has contracted, that the man

man of buſineſs is generally the ſlave of his word, that the trader ſeldom fails to diſcharge his obligations when his payments become due. If probity alone be the inſtigator of the firſt, the others are anxious to preſerve a ſpotleſs reputation which may increaſe their credit, multiply their operations, and facilitate all the affairs that they undertake.

It is with the pachas and the great that one ought to avoid to deal otherwiſe than with ready money, becauſe it is they who ſhew the moſt diſhoneſty, and who almoſt always make an improper uſe of their authority. As much as one may be confident with the plain man who hears and follows the voice of his conſcience, with the merchant always moved by ſelf-intereſt which commands him to appear an honeſt man, ſo much ought one to miſtruſt the man of power whom intrigue has led to the firſt employments, who, deaf to the call of honour, thinks that he can ſkreen himſelf from the eye of juſtice.

I ſhall not here eſtabliſh a parallel between the different nations which inhabit the LEVANT, and which are ſubject to the Ottoman government. The individuals who compoſe them, accuſed of being equally covetous, equally cunning, equally knaviſh, nevertheleſs, perform their engagements when one has taken with them ſuitable precautions. If probity do not incline them to it, fear at leaſt determines them, becauſe the Turks are always there to impoſe on them an exaction.

As for the Muſſulmans, one finds, in general, among them more ſincerity: one may, in general, truſt more to their word. We ſhould conſider them as the moſt honeſt and the moſt eſtimable of all, did they not ſhew themſelves unjuſt towards tributary ſubjects: did not the contempt which they have for them induce them to violate in regard to them the law of nations, to make them undergo humiliations, and cover them not unfrequently with diſgrace.

It is to the government alone, founded on an oppreſſive religion, that we muſt impute the knavery of ſome, the tyranny of others, the vices of all. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, deprived of the rights of citizenſhip, excluded from civil employments and from military ſervice, ſtrangers to the religion on which every thing reſts, obliged to redeem every year their head by a diſgraceful tax *, threatened inceſſantly with the loſs of their life or their fortune, and weak and unprotected, have, from their very infancy, learnt to diſſemble, to give way to the ſmalleſt ſhock, to withdraw themſelves from force by addreſs, from violence by ſubmiſſion. They have been obliged to be falſe from habit, cringing and vile from fear, cunning and knaviſh from the neceſſity of living and exiſting.

The Muſſulmans, vain of their ſuperiority, inſolent towards unarmed ſlaves, proud of belonging to a religion which inſpires contempt for all thoſe who are not admitted into it; fanatic, ferocious, and unjuſt through the effect of that religion; tolerated in the extortions which they exerciſe towards tributary ſubjects; emboldened even by a government which dreads thoſe whom it oppreſſes; the Muſſulmans, like their anceſtors, would poſſeſs a diſpoſition for greatneſs, heroiſm, and robbery, had they preſerved their morals, their courage, and all their fanaticiſm. But at this day the ſale of all employments and the precarious tenure of them makes all private perſons avaricious, and converts all the depoſitaries of authority into oppreſſors. Juſtice is venal, becauſe the cadis have been laid under contribution; the venality of the judges has produced falſe witneſſes; religious zeal is relaxed, courage is worn out, immorality has crept in every where: one may ſay boldly that it has at the preſent day reached its higheſt pitch in the towns.

The law of confiſcations has frequently occaſioned to be conſidered as criminal men whom birth, chance, or induſtry had enriched. That which aſſigns

* The karatch.

to

to the ſultan the property of thoſe who receive from him any pay whatever *, muſt, like the other, neceſſarily have clogged the operations of commerce, inſpired fears, and moſt contributed to the exceſſive rate of money.

If we except ſome parts of the two INDIES, in no country on earth is gold ſo common as in TURKEY; it circulates every where, it is the baſe of all payments, and every traveller has more or leſs in his girdle. There is not a woman who has not chains, necklaces, and other ornaments in ſequins; not a child that has not on its head ſome pieces of money: but this gold, the ornament and dreſs of the women, is for ever taken away from trade. The huſband, purſued by his creditors, would not dare to touch it, and the wife ſometimes ſees the father of her children brought to puniſhment, without being tempted to make the ſacrifice of that gold which ſhe has ſnatched from his weakneſs, or obtained from his affection.

TURKEY, however, is tributary to INDIA, as we are to TURKEY. The gold which the Europeans carry as a laſt reſult to that empire in payment of its merchandiſe, flows, in a great meaſure, through the RED SEA, through the PERSIAN GULF, and through PERSIA, and is ſwallowed up on the fertile and induſtrious coaſt of the INDIAN OCEAN. This is what I ſhall explain elſewhere more minutely.

The French merchants have very frequently lamented to ſee in all operations of commerce, the Jews and Armenians interpoſed between them and the Muſſulmans; but they do not pay attention that, being verſed in the cuſtoms and languages of the country, theſe Jews and theſe Armenians undertook a detail for which the European merchants were not qualified. Would they go

* All thoſe who receive pay from the ſultan or from the State, from the ſimple janizary up to the vizir-azem, are called *kouls* or ſervants; and, as ſuch, the ſultan can diſpoſe of their life, and, if he pleaſe, ſeize on all their property.

like them, and ſcatter their money beforehand in the country-places in order to purchaſe at a low price commodities when they are gathered? Would they, like them, be willing to draw an uſurious intereſt from their money? Could they keep ſight of it, and would they take the ſteps and make the cuſtomary pecuniary ſacrifices towards the cadis and the pachas when the queſtion is to recover their demands from diſhoneſt debtors? Undoubtedly not.—Well, let us leave to theſe Jews and theſe Armenians all the details of a traffic which can be advantageous to none but themſelves, and let us confine ourſelves to bartering with them our productions which they know better than we how to place ſuitably, which they ſell retail in the town, or which they deliver to the inhabitants of the country on account of their commodities.

If we caſt our eye on MARSEILLES and on all the ports of the ſouthern departments; if we examine the prodigious number of manufactories which this trade ſupported in all parts of FRANCE, how many hands it occupied every where, and how many veſſels and ſeamen it employed, we ſhould be convinced that this trade was an inexhauſtible ſource of riches to the mother-country and to its colonies, and that it was eſtabliſhed in the manner the moſt ſuitable to the intereſts of all.

Scarcely emerged from the convulſive ſtate in which we had been for upwards of ten years, we muſt hope that the LEVANT trade, no leſs advantageous to the Orientals than to ourſelves, will ſoon be revived on both ſides with its former activity. The war which the PORTE has been forced to declare againſt us, cannot be of long continuance: we ſhall avail ourſelves of our advantageous poſition in ſpite of the efforts of a jealous and powerful enemy. We ſhall, in ſpite of him, turn to account our territorial productions and our induſtry. The number of our ſeamen will riſe in proportion to our commerce: our navy is at this day without ſtrength, becauſe it is, in general, without inſtruction; without energy, becauſe it is without confidence; with-

out ſucceſs, becauſe it is commanded by men who are no longer in their place; our navy, I ſay, will inſure us this important trade when it ſhall rival in glory our armies, when the bravery of our ſailors ſhall be directed by the talents, the information, and the prudence of their commanders.

Did not the miſchievous genius of the Turks lead them to ſtifle conceptions and paralyze induſtry, did not their anti-ſocial religion impoſe ſilence on reaſon and philoſophy, no city in the world would be better calculated to ſerve as an emporium to an extenſive commerce, than CONSTANTINOPLE. Situated on the confines of EUROPE and ASIA, between the MEDITERRANEAN and the EUXINE, ſurrounded by fertile provinces, the capital of a vaſt empire, CONSTANTINOPLE would ſee paſs within its walls the productions of the EAST and of the WEST, as well as thoſe of the NORTH and of the SOUTH. The caravans of ASIA and the ſhips of EUROPE would ſucceed each other without interruption, for the purpoſe of effecting exchanges advantageous to all nations *.

But, in the preſent ſtate of affairs, this commerce is very limited. The induſtry of the inhabitants is confined to the ſimple wants of the city, and its territory is ſo little cultivated that it affords no article of exportation. Nevertheleſs, the neighbouring countries are ſo fertile and ſo productive, that they ſupply not only the numerous inhabitants of the capital, but permit the French merchants to export a ſufficiency to pay for one half of the value of the merchandiſe which they receive from MARSEILLES. A part of theſe commodities paſſes through the town, the other is immediately ſhipped at RODOSTO, at MUNDANIA, at the DARDANELLES, and at the harbour of ENOS.

* If the BOSPHORUS and the HELLESPONT belonged to an induſtrious, civilized power; if they made a part of a vaſt empire, CONSTANTINOPLE would neceſſarily become the metropolis of the world.

In

In ſpeaking here only of the export-trade, my object is to make known the moſt uſeful natural productions of every country that I ſhall viſit, and the commodities of which European commerce may have availed itſelf. At the end of this work I ſhall preſent a general picture of the import-trade which FRANCE carries on with all the LEVANT. I ſhall publiſh, at another time, thoſe articles of natural hiſtory which have not been treated of, or are little known.

Wool.

Wool forms the principal article of exportation from CONSTANTINOPLE, and the ſecond from all the LEVANT. It is eſtimated that the price of the wools which the French merchants ſend to MARSEILLES from CONSTANTINOPLE, RODOSTO, the DARDANELLES, and ENOS, amounts, one year with another, to 1,500,000 livres (*circa* 62,499l. ſterling). This value has ſometimes riſen to upwards of 2,000,000 (83,333l. ſterling). They come from the environs of the BOSPHORUS, from the PROPONTIS, and from the HELLESPONT, as well as from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, BESSARABIA, and the ſouthern coaſts of the BLACK SEA. The ſlaughter-houſes of the capital alone furniſh a ſomewhat conſiderable quantity.

In TURKEY are bred two ſorts of ſheep, that with a broad tail, and that with a common tail. The former is the larger, its fleece is leſs fine, and its tail receives ſuch a quantity of fat, that it ſometimes weighs upwards of ten pounds. The wool of the plain-tailed ſheep of BULGARIA, and of BESSARABIA, which comes to CONSTANTINOPLE by way of VARNA, or which paſſes through ADRIANOPLE, in order to be ſhipped at the harbour of ENOS, is the moſt eſteemed. The wools of BOSNIA are reckoned to be of a quality ſuperior to all thoſe of the LEVANT: they are conveyed on the back of mules or horſes, to SPALATRO, ZERA, and RAGUSA, whence they go by ſea to VENICE. The wools of WALLACHIA and of the North of SERVIA are generally ſpread through all GERMANY.

All

All the wools of TURKEY are, in general, of an indifferent or ordinary quality, and little fit for the manufacture of fine plain cloths. Nevertheless, when they are picked and mixed with the fine wools of SPAIN and ROUSSILLON, the traders of LANGUEDOC find means to make with them first and second *londrins* which they send to MARSEILLES, and thence to all the sea-port towns of the LEVANT, where a considerable consumption of them is made.

Camel's Hair.

In the cold countries of ASIA MINOR and of PERSIA, camels have, during the winter, a tolerable abundance of a fine, silky wool, which falls every year at the beginning of the summer. It is known by the French in trade, under the improper name of *laine de chevron.* The most esteemed is brought from PERSIA by the caravans of ERIVAN, TIFLIS, ERZERUM, and TOCAT. There is some of three qualities: the black, the red, and the gray. The black is the dearest, and the gray is worth only half the price of the red.

Some comes annually to MARSEILLES by way of ALEPPO, SMYRNA, and CONSTANTINOPLE. This last city expedites from eighty to a hundred bales weighing about three hundred pounds the bale. SMYRNA and ALEPPO send a quantity much more considerable.

This wool is employed in the manufacture of hats: it is purchased by all the European nations that trade to the LEVANT. The French, however, are those who draw the most of it, and make of it the greatest consumption. The English employ but a small quantity of the black, which they procure at SMYRNA.

This camel's hair must not be confounded with another wool longer, more silky, and finer which is found in PERSIA, and which is produced in plenty

plenty by a ſhe-goat on the mountains of KERMAN. I ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak of it elſewhere.

Goat's Hair.

On the hills and mountains of the environs of ANGORA, is bred a goat ſmaller than ours, with pendulous ears and ſhort legs, whoſe white fleece, long and very fine, is carefully ſpun by the inhabitants of the country, and partly employed by them in the manufacturing of the ſtuffs known under the name of ſerges, camlets, and *chalis* of ANGORA. The French have ſeveral factories in this town, for the purchaſe of the thread; and although this trade has for ſome time paſt been carried on through SMYRNA rather than through CONSTANTINOPLE, nevertheleſs, ſeveral bales of it paſs through this latter city, which the French merchants diſpatch to MARSEILLES.

Beſides the goat's hair of ANGORA, there is alſo known in trade that of BEIBAZAR, which lies fifteen or twenty leagues to the weſtward on the road of BURSA. The former is more eſteemed than the latter; it is finer, more ſupple, and more eaſy to be wrought; but that of BEIBAZAR is whiter, becauſe the inhabitants of this town are in the habit of ſoaping and waſhing the hair before they ſpin it.

The ANGORA goats have much affinity, as to the fineneſs of their hair, to thoſe of KERMAN and thoſe of CACHEMIRE. Both of them inhabit elevated places, cold in winter and very warm in ſummer; both are taken great care of, combed, and frequently waſhed by the ſhepherds who guard them.

Cotton.

Cotton is not cultivated at CONSTANTINOPLE nor on the ſhores of the BLACK SEA: the climate is too cold. It is only in the ſouth and weſt part of

of the PROPONTIS, in the environs of the HELLESPONT, that the culture of this valuable vegetable begins. Cotton is the moſt plentiful merchandiſe of the LEVANT, and that which the French draw in the greateſt quantity. The merchants of CONSTANTINOPLE diſpatch annually from GALLIPOLI, from the DARDANELLES, and from ENOS, about ſix hundred and fifty bales, eſtimated at 125,000 livres (*circa* 5,208l. ſterling).

Neither are the white ſpun cotton and the red dyed ſpun cotton of ADRIANOPLE a very important article of the export-trade of CONSTANTINOPLE: their value ſcarcely exceeds 40,000 livres, while from SMYRNA alone, MARSEILLES draws upwards of 2,000,000 of livres of ſpun cotton half white, half dyed red, and to the amount of 5,500,000 of livres of cotton wool: the greater part of the other ſea-port towns of the LEVANT furniſh more or leſs of this laſt article.

Formerly the red ſpun cotton of ADRIANOPLE enjoyed a very great reputation; but, for ſome time paſt, a preference is given to that of LARISSA in GREECE, and to thoſe of the environs of SMYRNA and of ſome towns of the interior of ASIA MINOR. Means have alſo been found within a ſhort time, in our French manufactories, to give ſpun cotton a red colour full as beautiful and as durable as that which is given to it in TURKEY. The red ſpun cottons of GREECE do not come into FRANCE; they paſs by the ADRIATIC, to VENICE and TRIESTE, whence they ſpread all over GERMANY.

Buffaloes' hides.

The buffalo is in very great plenty throughout the EAST: it ſerves for tillage: it is harneſſed to the waggons; it is made to turn the ſtones of mills, and wheels for the raiſing of water from wells. It is ſtronger than the ox, and more generally employed. Although it delights more particularly in

aquatic or marſhy places, on the banks of large and ſmall rivers, it nevertheleſs thrives every where, and acquires a ſize above that of oxen.

Its fleſh is ſcarcely fit to be eaten: it is tougher, leſs ſavoury than that of the ox, and is almoſt always accompanied by an odour of muſk which renders it by no means agreeable. It ſeldom happens that the Orientals ſubſiſt on it; they univerſally prefer the ſheep, whoſe fleſh is much more delicate than in our countries. The milk of the female is abundant and well-taſted; but the butter preſerves a ſmell ſomewhat diſagreeable, to which, however, one is ſoon reconciled.

The hide of the buffalo is much thicker and far more ſubſtantial than that of the ox; it weighs from eighty to a hundred pounds, and even more. A great quantity of them comes to CONSTANTINOPLE from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, BESSARABIA, WALLACHIA, and MOLDAVIA, and very few from the interior of ASIA MINOR. The hides of the males are more eſteemed than thoſe of the females; they are thicker, ſtronger, and much heavier. There paſs annually to MARSEILLES five or ſix thouſand of them, the price of which, one with another, is 15 livres or 2 ſhillings and 6 pence ſterling. ANCONA, LEGHORN, and MESSINA alſo conſume a rather large quantity. The Orientals content themſelves with ſalting thoſe which are intended for MARSEILLES and ANCONA; while thoſe which are carried to LEGHORN and MESSINA have been dreſſed and tanned with the cup of the Velani oak.

Thoſe hides, dreſſed and tanned at GRASSE in the department of the VAR, with different ſubſtances, and among others with myrtle, are very thick and very ſtrong, have a greeniſh colour, and are employed by the country-people for ſoles which laſt twice or thrice as long as thoſe of the beſt ox-hides.

There

There are alſo diſpatched to MARSEILLES two or three thouſand ox and cow hides not much eſteemed. The value of the ox-hide does not exceed 1 livre 50 centimes, and that of the cow 1 livre. They come from the ſhores of the BLACK SEA.

Buffaloes' tongues.

The ſmoked buffalo's tongue, which is prepared in ROMANIA, is held in tolerable eſtimation: a great conſumption is made of this article at CONSTANTINOPLE. Seven or eight hundred are exported every year to MARSEILLES. The Italians alſo purchaſe a great quantity. The preparation of them conſiſts in their being ſalted and expoſed for ſome time to the ſlow and continual action of ſmoke.

Hare's ſkin.

The hare is ſo common throughout ASIA MINOR, ROMANIA, and BULGARIA, that it is purſued for its ſkin, and there are diſpatched from ADRIANOPLE, BURSA, and CONSTANTINOPLE, for MARSEILLES alone, from three to four hundred bales, eſtimated at from 4 to 5000 livres.

The duty in the LEVANT, levied on goods exported, is diſcharged by the ſellers; but as a bale of hares' ſkins is ſometimes furniſhed by ſeveral perſons, and as the cuſtom-houſe officer would experience difficulties in the collection of the duties, in order to put a ſtop to the complaints of the PORTE and to the vexations to which the merchants were expoſed in this reſpect, it was reſolved, under the embaſſy of M. DE ST. PRIEST, that it ſhould, in future, be the purchaſers who ſhould pay the duties on this merchandiſe, at the rate of a parat or a ſous per oke (the oke weighs forty ounces and a half).

Turkey leather or Morocco.

The manufactories of morocco of GALLIPOLI, of the DARDANELLES, and of ſome towns of ASIA MINOR are the moſt renowned of the LEVANT. They

dreſs the ſkins of the ſhe and he goats killed in the capital, and thoſe which are diſpatched from ROMANIA and the interior of ASIA. Almoſt all the towns of TURKEY alſo manufacture ſome, becauſe the conſumption of them is every where conſiderable. The Turks, as is well known, wear no other ſhoe-leather than morocco: the black and the violet ſerve for the Jews and the Armenians. The Greeks employ more generally the red: this is alſo the colour of the janizaries and of the common people. The rich Muſſulmans, both men and women, all wear yellow ſhoes. Yellow is ſtrictly prohibited to tributary ſubjects, ſuch as the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews. Amongſt them there are none but thoſe who are attached to the legations and to the conſulates of foreign powers, or who are ſpecially protected by a barat, that can adorn themſelves with this privileged colour.

It is ſaid that the Turks learnt from the Algerines, to dye morocco red, which is known to be very beautiful among them, and for which they employ madder root, kermes, and a very little cochineal.

Their yellow morocco is not inferior in beauty to the red. In quality it is generally ſuperior, becauſe in the manufactories the ſkins which appear the beſt are ſelected, in order to be dyed the colour reſerved for the Muſſulmans.

The common moroccos are ſold for 2 livres 50 centimes a piece. The French merchants diſpatch annually from CONSTANTINOPLE, twelve or fifteen hundred. The other European nations alſo purchaſe a ſmall quantity.

According to the inſtructions which were given to us before our departure, we made ſome efforts to learn the proceedings which are employed in the dreſſing and in the dyeing of morocco: we offered money in order to be permitted to follow the proceſs made uſe of in the manufactories; but we found

found every where a reſiſtance of which we did not imagine the Turks capable. Although we entered ſeveral times into their manufactories, it was impoſſible for us to diſcover whether it is to the quality of the ſkins which they employ, or to their proceedings, that we muſt attribute the beauty of the moroccos of the LEVANT. Among the ſubſtances which we perceived, are lime, ſumac, the galnut, the cup of the Velani oak, dog's dung, madder root, cochineal, kermes, the rind of the pomegranate, and the ſeed of a rhamnus, different from that which yields the ſeed of AVIGNON.

Silk.

Before the troubles of PERSIA, the caravans brought to CONSTANTINOPLE and to SMYRNA a great deal of ſilk from GUILAN, CHIRVAN, and ADERBEJAN, which the French and the Engliſh were eager to purchaſe; but, for ſome time paſt, theſe ſilks go into RUSSIA by the CASPIAN SEA, and a part paſſes thence into ENGLAND by the BALTIC, as I ſhall have occaſion to mention when I ſhall ſpeak of the commerce of PERSIA with RUSSIA.

None but the ſilks of BURSA, ADRIANOPLE, and BULGARIA are at this day known at CONSTANTINOPLE. Thoſe of BURSA are the moſt abundant and the moſt eſteemed; they are almoſt all white; and their thread is fine and tolerably ſupple. This ſilk ſupplies the numerous manufactories of the town, thoſe of the capital, and thoſe of SCIO; ſome even goes to ALEPPO and to DAMASCUS; and, nevertheleſs, there is every year exported to the amount of 2 or 300,000 livres. The French have a houſe eſtabliſhed there: the Engliſh ſend thither factors when they wiſh to make purchaſes, and the merchants of TUNIS and ALGIERS alſo come thither to provide themſelves every year.

The environs of NICOMEDIA, NICEA, and all the country ſituated between OLYMPUS and the PROPONTIS, are covered with white mulberry-trees culti-

vated

vated with care, and with a ſufficient degree of intelligence. The inhabitants prefer keeping them dwarfs, in order to ſtrip them more eaſily of their leaves.

The ſilk of ADRIANOPLE and BULGARIA is almoſt all white, and in point of quality, approaches that of BURSA. It has been tolerably abundant there for ſome years paſt, and eſpecially ſince a conſiderable number of the inhabitants of BURSA have come thither to plant a great many mulberry-trees, and apply themſelves to the rearing of ſilk-worms.

This tree does not grow on the other ſide of the DANUBE; but it thrives very well in the CRIMEA; which leads us to preſume that ſhortly that fertile country, under an enlightened government, will produce ſilk as eaſily as wine, and that we ſhall at the ſame time ſee there almoſt all the productions of EUROPE.

Wax.

So great a quantity of wax comes from all the coaſts of the BLACK SEA, of the PROPONTIS, and of the HELLESPONT, as well as from ROMANIA, BULGARIA, WALLACHIA, and MOLDAVIA, that the French merchants eſtabliſhed at CONSTANTINOPLE diſpatch of it every year to the value of 300,000 livres (*circa* 12,800l. ſterling). A great deal is ſent to GENOA, LEGHORN, and VENICE. The Engliſh and the Dutch alſo purchaſe ſome, and there is, beſides, a great conſumption made of it in the Greek and Armenian churches, and in the houſes of all the individuals of the country, eſpecially during the month of the ramazan.

The wax of the interior of ASIA MINOR is conveyed by the caravans, to ALEPPO and to SMYRNA.

Box,

Box.

Box is abundant in ſome places of the ſouth coaſt of the BLACK SEA: there comes ſome from BARTHIN, a ſmall town ſituated at the mouth of the *PARTHENIUS*; but the fineſt is to be found on Mount CAUCASUS, and comes to CONSTANTINOPLE by the ſhips which bring Georgian, Circaſſian, and Mingrelian female ſlaves. There is ſent to MARSEILLES every year to the value of 12,000 livres (500l. ſterling).

Copper.

Such a quantity of copper is drawn from the mines which are ſituated to the ſouth of TREBISOND, in the environs of TOCAT, and in ſeveral places of ASIA MINOR, that TURKEY is able to pay with this metal for a part of the merchandiſe which ſhe draws from INDIA. There comes annually to MARSEILLES, from CONSTANTINOPLE, from SMYRNA, and from the ports of SYRIA, to the value of from 12 to 1300,000 livres. A great deal alſo paſſes into ITALY, and the Turks make a very great conſumption of it for their artillery which is all of braſs, for their table and kitchen utenſils, for their mangals, their chandeliers, and others.

There likewiſe comes to MARSEILLES to the value of 5 or 6,000 livres of copper coffee-pots, made at TREBISOND, or in the environs of that town.

Orpiment.

From the interior of ASIA MINOR is alſo drawn a very conſiderable quantity of orpiment. This mineral ſubſtance, mixed with a bolary earth, is employed throughout TURKEY, at the baths, as a depilatory for men and women of all conditions.

Indepen-

Independently of the great conſumption which is made of it in the country, there is annually exported to MARSEILLES to the amount of about 2,000 livres. The Italians take of it to a more conſiderable value.

Hart's horn.

The ſtag is rather common in the foreſts of the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE. There is annually ſent to MARSEILLES, to the value of 200 livres of its horns.

Peltry.

The fineſt furs come from RUSSIA and POLAND: ſome are likewiſe drawn from GEORGIA, from CIRCASSIA, from the CRIMEA, from WALLACHIA, and from all the north ſide of the BLACK SEA. Thoſe of the black fox and the ſable martin are the moſt eſteemed: the former are at a price which cannot be afforded by private perſons; the latter coſt ſometimes as much as 2 or 3,000 livres each. FRANCE fortunately diſpenſes with an article of merchandiſe which would conſiderably injure its manufactories. The few ſkins of this ſort which ſhe conſumes come to her from the north of EUROPE and from AMERICA. There is ſent from the LEVANT little more than to the value of 4 or 500 livres of zerdova or common martin's tails.

Horſe hair.

Horſe hair is an article which amounts annually to 4,000 livres (166l. 13s. 4d. ſterling). It almoſt all comes from BULGARIA and BESSARABIA.

Galls.

Although the oak which produces galls begins to be found in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, this article more particularly concerns the commerce of SMYRNA, ALEPPO, and CYPRUS. I ſhall ſpeak of it elſewhere.

Corn.

Corn.

The Ottoman government, which knows, more than any other, how dangerous it is to suffer the people to be in want of subsistence, has at all times taken care to supply the capital with provisions, and even to make sacrifices, when necessary, in order to keep bread at a low price: before the reign of SELIM, the oke cost no more than three parats. But since the government has imprudently made a monopoly of corn, the oke is sold for five or six parats; which creates murmurs among the people, who do not think themselves well governed except when commodities of the first necessity are at a very moderate price.

The corn countries are obliged to furnish the capital with a certain quantity at their expense, the price of which is fixed and paid by the PORTE, according to the harvests and other circumstances.

The government also sends commissaries to VOLO, to SALONICA, and into some districts of GREECE, for the purchase of corn. The firman which fixes the price of it, and which regulates the quantity that is to be delivered, is read publicly at the mékemé, and the proprietors are bound to conform themselves to it, each in proportion to his property. The commissaries defray all the expenses of warehouse-room, carriage, &c. as far as CONSTANTINOPLE, in consideration of a determined profit: for instance, if they have orders to purchase at 50 parats the kilo, they are allowed 70, and so in proportion. They always receive in advance the money necessary for the purchase which they are ordered to make.

The government likewise fixes the price at which bakers and private persons are to buy the corn which it causes to be distributed to them; and it reserves to itself a profit of fifty or sixty per cent. It is asserted that the

 produce

produce of this monopoly amounts annually to ten thouſand purſes or 10,000,000 of our livres.

At CONSTANTINOPLE are made three ſorts of bread: the one, called *pidé fodola*, or Turkiſh bread, is flat, ill baked, and tolerably white; the other *ſomoun* or Armenian bread, is raiſed, rounded, worſe baked more black, and of an inferior quality to the other. The third is called *frangeole*; it is ſmall, oblong, and kneaded nearly like that which we eat in FRANCE. The bakers of the country add to the former, barley flour; the ſecond is a mixture of wheat, barley, rye, and millet; the third is ſeldom made with pure wheat; the European bakers who furniſh it, eager to enrich themſelves, well know that thoſe who are accuſtomed to eat good bread, will prefer theirs, becauſe it is whiter, better baked, and above all better kneaded. It is ſold for ten, twelve, and even fourteen parats the oke. As it is ſuppoſed to be made for none but the Europeans, the police does not tax it, but ſuffers it to be ſold at the price which the baker chooſes; the latter only taking care to furniſh it of the beſt quality to the ambaſſadors whom they ſerve, and of whom they hold their privileges.

In the ſeraglio is made a fourth ſort of bread, with which we are not acquainted. It is ſaid to be very white, tolerably good, though worſe kneaded and leſs baked than the frangeoles. Private perſons are alſo in the habit of making bread, the quality of which approaches more or leſs to that of the bakers.

The corn of ROMANIA, of BULGARIA, and all that which is drawn in abundance from the environs of the DANUBE, is reckoned to be of a quality ſuperior to all that of the Ottoman Empire: that too which comes from the CRIMEA and from TAGANROFF, ſituated towards the mouth of the DON, is much eſteemed. That of VOLO, of SALONICA, and of the MOREA is reckoned to be

be of the ſecond quality: next comes that of SYRIA and CYPRUS. The corn of EGYPT is conſidered as inferior to all the others.

Although the exportation of wheat is prohibited, means are found ſometimes in the DARDANELLES, to ſhip one or more cargoes of it coming from the weſtern and northern coaſts of the BLACK SEA: veſſels alſo load with it at RODOSTA, in TROAS, at VOLO, and in the Gulf of ENOS. It may be procured in EGYPT, in SYRIA, on the coaſt of NATOLIA, and in ſome other parts of the MOREA; but pecuniary ſacrifices muſt always be made, and ſuitable precautions taken not to irritate the people, or give too much diſſatisfaction to the PORTE.

FRANCE ought not to forget that, during the revolution, when ſhe was threatened, from all quarters, with the moſt terrible famine, the Ottoman government permitted ſeveral cargoes of corn to be ſhipped, and tolerated a greater number, though wheat was not more plentiful in TURKEY in that year than in others. This permiſſion, contrary to Ottoman cuſtoms and policy, proceeded, at that period, from the good intentions of the government in regard to us, and from the extremely wiſe conduct of the agent of the Republic reſident at the PORTE.

Alimentary ſubſtances.

CONSTANTINOPLE draws from PHILIPPOPOLIS a tolerably large quantity of rice leſs eſteemed than that of EGYPT: it is alſo cultivated in ſome parts of ASIA MINOR, and ſeveral cargoes of it arrive every year from DAMIETTA: the latter is the fineſt and the beſt of all. Cherries, plums, pears, and apples arrive every day from the ſouthern coaſt of the BLACK SEA, as well as cheſnuts, hazel-nuts, and walnuts. Apricots, peaches, grapes, figs, muſk-melons, cucumbers, water-melons, young pumpkins, melongenas, eſculent hibiſcus, and various ſpecies of herbs come from the neighbouring villages, from the

coaſts of the PROPONTIS, and from the weſt and ſouth parts of the BLACK SEA. The Iſland of SCIO furniſhes oranges, lemons, bergamot-citrons, pomegranates, and ſome prunes; it alſo furniſhes conſerves of flowers of roſes and oranges, the uſe of which is ſo general and ſo frequent in TURKEY. The beſt raiſins come from NATOLIA, thoſe of the ARCHIPELAGO are, in general, too much dried up and of little value. The raiſins are brought from the environs of SMYRNA.

The fruit of the *dioſpiros lotus* or European date-plum, cultivated in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE, CERASONTE, and SINOPE, is eaten freſh: there is alſo made of it a marmalade which the Orientals eſteem: it appeared to me not very agreeable. MITYLENE furniſhes the ſalted olives which, with caviare and ſalt fiſh, the Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews make the principal article of their food. The chich-pea and maize which are cultivated every where, are ground into flour or ſimply roaſted: the women and children have almoſt always ſome in their pockets.

From all the coaſts of the BLACK SEA are, brought honey, butter and tallow. The firſt alſo comes from GREECE, and from a few iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO: the conſumption of the ſecond is ſo great, that the government takes care that ſome ſhould arrive from all quarters: European TURKEY and ASIA MINOR furniſh it in abundance. MITYLENE and CANDIA ſend their oils: TENEDOS alſo exports its wine to the Europeans, Greeks, and Armenians: the Jews make theirs at SCUTARI, at the DARDANELLES, and in the environs.

The almonds which are drawn from ſome countries of NATOLIA and from ſome iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, are not ſufficient for the great conſumption of the capital; FRANCE makes them an article of trade rather important. But SYRIA and NATOLIA ſend a vaſt quantity of the kernels of the ſtone-pine tree which the Orientals put into moſt of their ragouts, and of

which they make, with ſugar, delicacies in very great requeſt. From DAMASCUS are drawn dried apricots, very ſweet, which are alſo put into ragouts, or eaten boiled in the manner of ſtewed fruit. The dates of EGYPT and the piſtachio-nuts of ALEPPO are too dear to be within the purchaſe of the common people; the latter eſpecially are reſerved for children and for the wives of the rich.

I ſhall not here ſpeak of ſome fruits of little value, ſuch as the medlar, the cornil, and that of the *elæagnus* or Bohemian olive-tree, which come from the environs of the capital, or from the interior of ASIA MINOR.

The beſt cheeſe of the LEVANT is that of CANDIA: a great deal comes from BULGARIA, WALLACHIA, and the environs of the PROPONTIS; but it is, in general, bad and very little eſteemed, becauſe it is made without ſkill, and becauſe the cuſtom obtains of drawing the butter from all the milk which is intended for cheeſe. The *yougourt* or ſour curdled milk does not at all pleaſe ſtrangers: it is, nevertheleſs, a wholeſome food to which a perſon is ſoon reconciled, and which he then eats with pleaſure: it is found in abundance throughout the EAST.

There comes from the northern coaſt of the BLACK SEA, a prodigious quantity of caviare and ſalted fiſh. Caviare is nothing more than ſturgeon's ſpawn ſalted and packed up in large caſks. The conſumption which is made of it in CONSTANTINOPLE and in all the towns of the Ottoman Empire, is immenſe. It is the Greeks and the Armenians who eat the moſt, on account of their faſts and their lents. The Jews alſo live on it very frequently, becauſe this aliment is of little value. The inhabitants alſo make uſe of various ſalted fiſhes, ſome of which come from the BLACK SEA, and the others from the environs of PATRAS. Thoſe from the BLACK SEA are cut into

thongs,

thongs, ſalted and dried; the others are whole, dried or placed in caſks with pickle. Excellent mullets ſalted are likewiſe brought from the Gulf of ENOS.

At CONSTANTINOPLE there is, under the ſuperintendance of the PORTE, a conſiderable eſtabliſhment in which a great number of workmen are employed in burning Arabian coffee, and in pounding it in large marble mortars. It is diſtributed in powder to the Turkiſh coffee-houſe keepers and dealers, according to the calls that they make for it. Private perſons alſo have the power, in conſideration of a trifling tax, of carrying coffee to this eſtabliſhment, in order to have it roaſted and pounded: but it is prohibited, under very ſevere penalties to mix with Mocha the WEST INDIA coffee, which is cheaper and leſs eſteemed than the other. This prevents not MARSEILLES alone from furniſhing the capital to the value of a million of our livres every year. True it is that in BULGARIA, BESSARABIA, and in the environs of the DANUBE, WEST INDIA coffee is preferred to that of YEMEN, and that a great deal of it paſſes into thoſe countries by the way of CONSTANTINOPLE.

MOCHA coffee is brought from ALEXANDRIA every year by the caravels of the Grand Signior: there arrives at the ſame time a tolerably large quantity of ſugar from EGYPT, which the common people prefer to that of the Europeans, becauſe it is cheaper, and ſweetens, it is ſaid, better than the other: it is not ſo well refined, and it preſerves a part of its moſcovade.

Combuſtibles; wood for carpenter's and joiner's work, and timber for ſhip-building.

All the wood uſed for fuel and cooking in the houſes of private perſons, in ſome manufactories and eſpecially for the baths, comes from the ſouth part of the PROPONTIS and the coaſts of the BLACK SEA, ſituated from the Bos-

PHORUS

PHORUS as far as SINOPE. It is more particularly oak that is burnt: for this purpofe are alfo employed the holm green oak, the arbutus, and almoft all the trees of which I fhall prefently give the enumeration. From thofe countries is drawn a greater quantity of charcoal, becaufe, in TURKEY, the inhabitants do not warm themfelves at the fire of chimnies, as I have faid elfewhere, but at that of tandours and mangals, for which charcoal only is required. The beft is made of the oak and the holm, fome is alfo made of the pine, the fir, and the arbutus.

The countries of which I have juft fpoken, covered with beeches, hornbeams, oaks, elms, walnut-trees, cherry-trees, pear-trees, pines, firs, chefnut-trees, plane-trees, and lime-trees, furnifh the capital, in profufion, with all the wood neceffary for joiner's work and for the frame-work of the houfes which the inhabitants are accuftomed to build with wood; and, indeed, the confumption of it is prodigious in an immenfe city, where frequent fires induce the neceffity of rebuilding continually the houfes which the flames have deftroyed. There are daily arriving beams of oak, pine and fir, joifts of oak and beech, for the frame-work, and planks of chefnut-tree for the roofs of houfes; thin planks of walnut-tree, plane-tree, cherry-tree, pear-tree, lime-tree, oak, beech, afh, pine, and fir for joiner's work; pump-pipes and troughs in elm, pine, fir, oak, &c. &c.

There alfo arrives from the fame countries, a great deal of fhip-timber for the arfenal, and fpars for mafts and yards which are not inferior to thofe of the north of EUROPE. The PORTE alfo draws excellent timber for fhip-building from MOLDAVIA, which is fhipped at GALAS. There is a great deal in POLAND and in South RUSSIA, of which the French government had made trials fome time before the revolution, with which it had been fatisfied, and of which it would, perhaps, have made ufe, notwithftanding the clamours of fome perfons intereftted in decrying it.

SINOPE

SINOPE is the town of the Ottoman Empire the moſt within reach of ſhip-timber, and that in whoſe dock-yards at preſent the greateſt activity prevails. Oak is extremely abundant in the environs: its wood, more handſome for joiner's work, is as good and as ſolid for ſhip-building, as that of our ſouthern departments.

The exportation of timber fit for the conſtruction of line-of-battle ſhips is ſtrictly prohibited at SINOPE. An officer of the PORTE is inceſſantly employed in cauſing to be felled, ſquared, and conveyed to the arſenal ſuch wood as he judges fit for the ſervice of the navy. For the conſtruction of merchant-veſſels, private perſons can diſpoſe only of that which he rejects or cannot employ.

The ſouth coaſt of the BLACK SEA alſo furniſhes a very large quantity of tar, flax, and hemp for the dock yard at SINOPE, and for the arſenal of CONSTANTINOPLE. Flax and hemp are alſo drawn from WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER XX.

Of the droguemans and barataires.—Of the marriage of the merchants.—Of the French workmen ſettled in the Levant.—Of the caravan or carrying-trade in the Levant.

THE claſs of droguemans deſerves the moſt ſerious attention on the part of the French government, ſince it is on their probity, on their intelligence, and on their civiſm that depend the ſucceſs of the negociations which are intruſted to them and the favourable iſſue of the private affairs with the management of which they are charged. It has long been occupied about them without ever having attained the object which it had in view. It had imagined, perhaps, that education was to ſupply the place of other qualities, and that it was ſufficient for a man, in other reſpects intelligent, to know perfectly French, Turkiſh, and Arabic, to be a good drogueman. A preference was given to young men born in TURKEY, becauſe they had a better pronunciation of the oriental languages and a greater facility in ſpeaking them correctly. They were made to ſpend a few years in PARIS, in order to learn French, and the principles of the Turkiſh and Arabic languages. They were ſent to finiſh their ſtudies in a ſchool of Capuchins eſtabliſhed at CONSTANTINOPLE: thence they were ſcattered over the different ſea-port towns of the LEVANT, and thoſe who ſhewed the moſt capacity were afterwards ſent for to reſide with the ambaſſador.

Through an inconſiderate condeſcenſion, almoſt all the French droguemans had been taken from four or five families originally foreign, or for a long time paſt ſettled in the LEVANT. Theſe men, born in TURKEY, deſcended from Greek or Armenian mothers, ſhewed us, at the period of the revolu-

 tion,

tion, how little reliance ought to be placed on perſons of their ſtamp. Although they were indebted to FRANCE for their education, their profeſſion, and their fortune, they heſitated not to go over into the ſervice of our enemies, and to tranſmit to them the knowledge which they had acquired among us. Some even have been accuſed of having carried off the depots, and having plundered the chanceries; all, in a word, proved, on this memorable occaſion, that, in the ſequel, the important functions of drogueman ought to be intruſted to none but real Frenchmen, to men born in the boſom of FRANCE, and brought up and educated in her manners and cuſtoms.

I do not think that one ought to aſſimilate the man born in TURKEY, of a father who has long ſince renounced his country, of a mother a ſubject of the Grand Signior, of a Greek or Armenian woman who deteſts our cuſtoms, and ridicules our manners to him who, born in FRANCE, ſhall have imbibed with his milk, ideas of probity, morality, and honour. Five or ſix years which the former ſhall have paſſed in PARIS for his education, will not be able to deſtroy the impreſſions that he ſhall have received in his youth. Accuſtomed to live with degraded men, ſurrounded by relations whoſe mind is tarniſhed by ſlavery, educated in the ſchool of vice, five or ſix years will not be ſufficient for elevating his mind, for engraving in an indelible manner in his heart the love of virtue, the thirſt of glory, and devotion to his country.

The reader will, perhaps, be ſurpriſed that I conſider a man born in the LEVANT as leſs fitted for the ſocial virtues, as leſs qualified to diſcharge functions which require probity and honour. In the firſt place, experience too frequently informs us that the drogueman, born and bred in TURKEY, makes no ſcruple of ſacrificing the intereſts of private perſons, and thoſe of the government, when he finds any advantage in ſo doing. It would be ſhameful to ſay, but perhaps not very difficult to prove, that the agent falls ſometimes into the ſnares which the drogueman ceaſes not to ſpread for him.

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Too frequently the latter has forced the other to ſilence by his manœuvres, or ſeduced him by the gold which he has had the addreſs to preſent to him opportunely and with caution.

Beſides, what can be expected from a man brought up in a country where the idea of probity and of duties is attached only to the exterior practices of a religious worſhip, where cuſtoms authoriſe a perſon to cauſe himſelf to be paid for the ſmalleſt ſervice, the ſmalleſt undertaking; where juſtice is ſold, where falſe evidence is paid for, where murder is redeemed, where every thing, in a word, is trafficked for without ſcruple, without ſhame, and without remorſe?

The embaſſy of CONSTANTINOPLE in no manner reſembles that of the other courts. In theſe the ambaſſador conducts affairs himſelf: he can develop all his talents; he can bring into action all the reſources of his genius: but, at CONSTANTINOPLE, he depends ſolely on his drogueman: if the man whom he employs be weak or unſkilful, the ambaſſador is no longer any thing more with the PORTE than a fool or a common man. If the drogueman be a knave, the ambaſſador is deceived: he ſees the cleareſt affairs take a perplexed turn, become confuſed, grow dark, and preſent every day new incidents: their progreſs, according to circumſtances, will be retarded by ſuppoſed obſtacles. Difficulties and embarraſſments will ariſe at every ſtep, till at length the ambaſſador diſguſted, will renounce his projects and abandon his undertakings.

If the drogueman, on the contrary, had the patriotiſm, the great talents, and the probity which we ſuppoſe in an ambaſſador, and if the latter, with a pure heart and a ſound judgment, had only ordinary abilities, the intereſts of the nation would be lodged in better hands. The progreſs of affairs would not be clogged: the PORTE would be ſeen to treat with confidence, loyalty, and frankneſs: the firmans for the puniſhment of delinquents, in the ſea-

ports of the LEVANT, would be expeditiouſly delivered, and would leave no doubt, no ambiguity in their diſpoſitions: our commerce would be effectually protected; no Frenchman would ever be outraged or inſulted with impunity: the commiſſaries and agents of the Republic would enjoy the conſideration which they merit.

Is there, in the LEVANT, a man of any judgment who has not a thouſand times made the ſame reflections as myſelf? Is there one who has not very frequently perceived that the drogueman altered or modified at his pleaſure the words which he is charged to tranſmit?

It is at MARSEILLES, and not at CONSTANTINOPLE, that we muſt eſtabliſh public ſchools of Greek, Turkiſh, and Arabic, in order that the young men who are intended for the LEVANT trade, and the mariners who are to purſue the carrying-trade there, may learn the languages of which they will ſtand in need, if they wiſh not to be deceived, if they be deſirous of conducting buſineſs themſelves, and of acting according to their own pleaſure and without obſtacles.

It is expedient to eſtabliſh another ſchool at PARIS, more particularly deſtined for the droguemanſhip, in which ſhould be received none but young men born or brought up in FRANCE. They ſhould there learn not only vulgar Greek, Turkiſh, Arabic, and Perſian, but the language which is conſigned in Greek and Arabic books, the Turkiſh and Perſian which are ſpoken at court, and which are made uſe of in the acts emanating from the government.

A few years' ſtay in TURKEY, one or two years' apprenticeſhip to the commiſſaries and agents, would be ſufficient for the pupil intended for a drogueman to catch the pronunciation, and learn all the turns of the languages for which he will have the moſt occaſion, according as he might propoſe to

ſerve

ſerve the capital or the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT, GREECE, or SYRIA. Beſides, there would be no harm in his preſerving a foreign pronunciation: the Muſſulman has almoſt always for the European the reſpect with which he thinks that he may diſpenſe towards the man who, born in TURKEY, appears to him no more than a ſlave in diſguiſe.

An infinite number of advantages would reſult if the droguemanſhip were, in the LEVANT, the nurſery of the agents and commiſſaries of the commercial relations: there would neceſſarily be ſeen in them more zeal, more information, more attachment, and more probity *. Buſineſs in the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT would be better tranſacted and much more quickly terminated if the commiſſary were acquainted with the language of the country, if he had learned by a long experience, to know the Muſſulmans and all the ſubjects of the Grand Signior.

But, above all, it would be neceſſary to obtain from the PORTE that the French drogueman ſhould preſent himſelf in an European dreſs, in a particular uniform, and that he ſhould not be ſubject to the Turkiſh cuſtoms and ceremonial; for were the drogueman to continue to humble himſelf before a pacha, a mutſelim, a ſimple writer of the PORTE; were he always to be in fear of the baſtinade; were he obliged to offer them ſubmiſſively his head, to kiſs the ſkirt of their robe, how could he preſerve that independence of opinion, that inflexibility of character, that elevation of mind ſo neceſſary to a commiſſary in the LEVANT?

Current affairs of little importance would continue to be tranſacted by the droguemans of the country, creatures vile at this day, whoſe whole oc-

* Citizen RUFFIN, formerly drogueman, at this day *chargé d'affaires* of the Republic at the PORTE, would furniſh us, if it were neceſſary, with an inconteſtable proof that the intereſts of the nation could not ſometimes be placed in better hands.

cupation

cupation is to avoid the ſtick of the Turks and to pick up money from thoſe who employ them, but who might be eaſily turned to account by means of barats wiſely granted.

I am not willing to have recourſe to thoſe Greeks, to thoſe Armenians, to thoſe opulent Jews who purchaſe a barat only in order to have a right to wear ſlippers like thoſe of the Muſſulmans, or pay no more than three per cent. for cuſtom-houſe duties, and who, by that means, place their life and their fortune under the ſafe-guard of an European power. I conſider it as extremely unbecoming and impolitic that an ambaſſador has it in his power to ſell at a very high price his protection to ſuch men, who very frequently expoſe his credit, who always take up a part of his time, and who bear towards the European merchants a remarkable prejudice.

Barats ought to be given gratuitouſly to thoſe who ſhall devote themſelves to the ſervice of the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT, who ſhall undertake all laborious and diſagreeable functions, and who, poor and without intereſt, will be almoſt always the agents of the merchants. Theſe men, from whom the commiſſaries of commercial relations ſhall be able to cauſe the barat to be withdrawn becauſe they have not purchaſed it, ſhall be obliged to conduct themſelves honeſtly if they wiſh to preſerve it and enjoy the privileges which are attached to it.

Long experience had formerly taught the government, how wiſe it was to prohibit the merchants and agents whom it employed in the LEVANT, from marrying with the women of the country. This law, which favour and protection ſometimes ſilenced, ought to be reſtored to vigour and rigorouſly executed: the intereſt of the merchant and the advantage of the State alike demand this. It is ſo much the more neceſſary, as there exiſts one in TURKEY, which declares *rayas* or tributary ſubjects the children of the Europeans who

are born from a Greek or Armenian woman a ſubject of the Grand Signior.

Independently of the woman, born in the LEVANT, preferring oriental indolence to the cares of a family, and conſuming in nonſenſe, in dreſs, and in trinkets, conſiderable ſums, ſhe has generally ſo little attachment and gratitude to him to whom ſhe is indebted for comfort and repoſe, that, following the example of the Muſſulman women, ſhe neglects nothing to purloin from him his ſavings and deprive him of the means of returning to his own country. The huſband, not being able to prevail on his wife to follow him, to renounce ſofas, vapour-baths, and cuſtoms which ſhe has contracted from her infancy, aſſumes by degrees the habits of the country. Idleneſs gets hold of him, old age takes him by ſurpriſe, and death carries him off: his family renounce for ever the mother-country. They would even ſoon forget it, did not their intereſt invite them to preſerve the protection which the father enjoyed.

Droguemans were not generally compriſed in this prohibition, becauſe they were, undoubtedly, expatriated for ever; while the merchant was likely to return to FRANCE after twelve, fifteen, or twenty years of labours, and bring back with him the fortune which he would not fail to make in the LEVANT when he conducted himſelf with intelligence and economy *.

On arriving at CONSTANTINOPLE and in the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT, we were very much ſurpriſed to find every where a great number of French workmen who had brought into theſe countries the arts of EUROPE, and who enjoyed, under the protection of the ambaſſador and the agents of the

* Young lads were ſent to the commercial houſes of the LEVANT at the age of fifteen or eighteen: the greater part were book-keepers at twenty-five: ten years were ſufficient for them to make a fortune which allowed them to return to FRANCE and there marry.

Republic,

Republic, the produce of their induſtry without either paying taxes or impoſts. If theſe workmen and theſe artiſts expatriated themſelves only in order to acquire riches and return ſooner or later to bring them back to their country, if they did not do a conſiderable injury to the national commerce and induſtry by teaching the Turks to diſpenſe with us, by eſtabliſhing our workſhops, our manufactories among them, certainly they deſerved that an ambaſſador ſhould procure them the enjoyment of all the advantages granted to merchants.

But how far are they from reſembling thoſe eſtimable men who, removed from their natal land, devote themſelves to a painful labour, who conſent to paſs the prime of their life among barbarians, who ſee themſelves expoſed to the poniard of aſſaſſins, to fires, to the plague, and to the malignant influence of ſome marſhy countries, with a view of eſtabliſhing between TURKEY and FRANCE a commerce of barter extremely advantageous, a commerce which enlivens our workſhops, increaſes our population, forms a great number of ſailors, diffuſes plenty in ſome places, and comfort every where!

The French workman, by doing a prejudice to his country, drags on in the LEVANT a lingering exiſtence. His profits are very limited, and he very ſeldom acquires, by perſevering labour, and the ſtricteſt economy, wherewith to be able to return to his country. The workman, beſides, hurried ſometimes into gaming-houſes and taverns, may, in the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT and even at CONSTANTINOPLE, expoſe the fate of all the French, in a moment of ebriety, or in one of thoſe fits of paſſion which ſhall lead him to the commiſſion of an offence ſomewhat ſerious.

For his own advantage, the workman ought to be ſent back to his own country, unleſs his ſtay in the LEVANT be found uſeful to the ambaſſador and

to

to FRANCE, and if he refused to depart, he ought, without his having a right to complain, to be refused a protection which he does not merit.

The ignorance of the Orientals in the art of navigation, and, above all, the fear of Maltese privateers, had in all times induced the Turks to make use of Venetian, Ragusan, and French vessels for the conveyance of their merchandise from one town to another. They also had recourse to the boats of the country; but they then preferred those belonging to the Greeks who had obtained a pass from the archbishops of SYRA and NAXOS.

The French had always in the seas of the LEVANT a great number of vessels solely employed in carrying from one *echelle* * or sea-port town to the other the merchandise with which they were laden, and from which they derived a tolerably advantageous freight. This carrying-trade, known in the South of FRANCE under the name of *caravane*, was a practical school of navigation, and a rather considerable source of wealth to some towns of ancient PROVENCE. None were better acquainted with the seas of the LEVANT, used greater expedition in their voyages, and navigated with greater advantage for the traders, than the Provençal mariners. The navigation of the Venetians and Ragusans was extremely slow and timid: it presented more dangers, because they sometimes ran their vessels ashore, by wishing, on the smallest sign of bad weather, to gain a harbour or roadstead.

Independently of the freights which yielded profits to all those who had concurred in the construction, purchase, and outfit of the vessel, the captain never failed to enrich himself sooner or later when he was active, intelligent

* *Echelle* comes from the Italian word *scala*, because there exist in all the harbours and roadsteads of the LEVANT, in lieu of quays, ladders or wooden steps, which project into the sea for the access of vessels and boats, and for facilitating the embarkation and debarkation of persons and goods.

and

and frugal, and the ſailors themſelves, beſides their wages, gained a great deal by the ſmall parcels of goods which they carried from MARSEILLES, or which they made up in the LEVANT in going from one ſea-port town to another. This laſt-mentioned profit is very conſiderable: there is twenty-five per cent. to be gained by choice merchandiſe. The intelligent ſeaman who was well acquainted with the LEVANT, did not fail to avail himſelf of the circumſtance. This gain, repeated five or ſix times in the courſe of the year, ſoon doubled and tripled the capital. I have known a great number of ſailors who ſupported at MARSEILLES, at LA CIOTAT, at ST. TROPEZ, or at LA SEINE, a numerous family, and who, beſides, procured themſelves early in life a competence for the remainder of their days.

A veſſel was divided into twenty-four ſhares or kirats, and each ſhare might be ſubdivided according to the intentions of the ſhare-holders. The veſſel was to return at the expiration of three years. The profits were divided, according to the account of the captain, between the parties intereſted, after deducting the expenſes which had been incurred for the wages of the crew, and ſuch repairs and refitting as were found neceſſary.

For ſome time paſt it had been perceived that the ſhare-holders gained ſo much the leſs, as the captains enriched themſelves the more quickly; however, though diſhoneſty had found its way among the greater part of them, the moſt ſhameleſs even ſtill brought wherewith to keep up in the ſhare-holders the confidence which has always been placed in this kind of ſpeculation. The ſmall towns which I have juſt mentioned, had by this means acquired a conſiderable increaſe; there exiſted among the inhabitants a degree of comfort which was not to be ſeen in thoſe that were merely agricultural.

There were reckoned upwards of a hundred veſſels employed in this carrying-trade, generally manned each by eight or ten hands, including the captain

and

and mate. The trade which was regularly carried on from MARSEILLES with all the ſea-port towns of the LEVANT, employed four or five hundred. The *caravane*, as is ſeen, ought therefore to be encouraged at the peace, as well on account of the profits which it procures, as of the practical knowledge which our ſeamen acquire in the ſeas of the LEVANT.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

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TRAVELS

IN THE

OTTOMAN EMPIRE, EGYPT, AND PERSIA.

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Page 5 Note †, *for* cylindri, formi *read* cylindriformi
10 — *, *for* vertia *read* vertice
24 Line 9, *dele* not
43 — 3, *for* Moſſoul *read* Moſul
105 — 9, *for* there *read* here
160 — 16, *for* Acrotiſi *read* Acrotiri
167 — 6, *for* form of a calotte *read* ſhape of a calotte
211 — 19, *for* Lepante *read* Lepanto

TRAVELS

TO

CONSTANTINOPLE,

TO THE ISLANDS

OF THE ARCHIPELAGO,

AND TO

CRETE.

CHAPTER I.

Departure from Conſtantinople *for the Gulf of* Mundania.—*Stay at* Ghemlek.—*Turkiſh dock-yard.—Timber for ſhip-building.—Culture of the land.—Natural hiſtory.—Iſlands of the* Propontis.—Gallipoli.—Lampſacus.—*Arrival at the* Dardanelles.

EVENTS, which had ſucceeded each other with rapidity ſince our departure from PARIS, having made us loſe ſight of the principal object of our miſſion, the courſe which appeared to us the moſt prudent from the very firſt day of our arrival in the LEVANT, was to requeſt our recall to FRANCE, or formal authority to quit CONSTANTINOPLE, to direct our ſteps to the ſouthern ſhores of the BLACK SEA, to repair through ARMENIA, GEORGIA, GUILAN or CHIVRAN, to the borders of the CASPIAN SEA, then to traverſe

PERSIA from north to ſouth, and return to FRANCE by the PERSIAN GULF, BASSORA, BAGDAD, ALEPPO, and SYRIA. For ſix months, we had been in vain expecting that the envoy extraordinary of the Republic would be authorized to furniſh us with the means neceſſary for the execution of this journey. We felt the moſt eager impatience to travel over one of the parts of our globe the moſt intereſting, in regard to natural hiſtory, geography, ancient and modern hiſtory, commerce, &c. when we received an account of the detention of Citizen SEMONVILLE, on the neutral territory of the GRISONS, by one of the powers inimical to FRANCE.

It is very certain that the arrival, at CONSTANTINOPLE, of an ambaſſador of the Republic had mitigated the fate of the French, calmed their inquietude, rendered the PORTE more circumſpect, and relieved us from the ſuſpenſe in which we had been ſince our departure from PARIS. Citizen SEMONVILLE, with whom we had conferred ſeveral times at MARSEILLES, was acquainted with the views of the government with reſpect to us; he knew what was the primitive object of our miſſion; he was not ignorant of all the importance which the executive proviſional council attached to our political and commercial relations with the Ottoman Empire, and how many advantages they hoped, in certain circumſtances, to derive from a more intimate union with the Turks.

Receiving no anſwer to the different letters which we had addreſſed to the government, we reſolved to go and ſpend the winter at the DARDANELLES, or in the Iſlands of GREECE, far from the agitations and intrigues which the various ſhades of political opinions had produced among the French, and of which we had, in ſpite of ourſelves, been witneſſes. What determined us to take this courſe, was that we ſhould be thence enabled to return to FRANCE if we were recalled, or to repair to whatever country of the Ottoman Empire the government ſhould in future think it neceſſary to ſend us.

We

We received, from Citizen DESCORCHES, all the aſſiſtance that his precarious ſituation allowed him to afford, and we leſt CONSTANTINOPLE on the 6th of Frimaire, year II, (26th of November, 1794,) on board a Raguſan veſſel, freighted by a French merchant. The captain had orders to go and anchor in the Gulf of MUNDANIA, in order to take in there ſome bales of ſilk which were to be ſent to him from BURSA. Thence he was to ſet ſail for SMYRNA, and leave us, in paſſing, at the DARDANELLES, where we had an intention of making ſome ſtay.

The day was fine, the temperature of the air very mild, and the ſea perfectly ſmooth: the wind, which had been to the ſouth for eight days, had died away, and appeared likely to ſhift to the north: the captain took advantage of the firſt favourable breath in order to get under ſail. We departed from GALATA at noon, and came to an anchor at ſunſet, off the village of PRINKIPOS. The wind being faint and variable, we remained at this anchorage two days, during which we amuſed ourſelves in killing, from on board, ſome divers, in ſhooting, in the iſland, woodcocks and red partridges, and in gathering, for our collection, ſeeds, lichens, and a few late plants.

The wind having ſettled at north north-eaſt, we ſet ſail, at ſeven o'clock in the morning, for the Gulf of MUNDANIA: at ten, we were a league from the coaſt ſituated between this gulf and that of NICOMEDIA, and at noon we had doubled Cape BOUZ-BOURNOU. This coaſt is beautiful, diverſified, and rather mountainous; the ſoil appeared fertile and wooded; we perceived fields laid down in corn, a few flocks of ſheep, and ſeveral inconſiderable villages. After having doubled the cape, the wind till then favourable, was likely to be contrary to us; it obliged us to ply to windward a part of the night. We had ſome difficulty to get to an anchor half a league from the village of GHEMLEK, at two cables' length from the ſouth coaſt.

The anchorage, at the head of the gulf, is excellent; the anchors hold well every where; but, in winter, it is moſt prudent to approach the dock-yard ſituated to the ſouth, and to bring up at a cable and a half or two cables' length from the ſhore; for if a veſſel came to an anchor on the ſide of the village, ſhe would be expoſed to a heavier ſea with a weſterly wind ſomewhat ſtrong, and might run the riſk of being driven on the rocks which ſkirt that coaſt, if her cables were too old or too weak.

The village, called *Kios* by the Greeks, and *Ghemlek* by the Turks, is ſituated in the form of an amphitheatre, at the head of the gulf, towards the north part: it is built on the ruins of the ancient *Cius*, and its population appears to be about two thouſand ſouls. The inhabitants, for the moſt part Greeks, are occupied in the culture of the land: few among them are mariners; ſeveral are employed againſt their will, as workmen, ſince the Turks have eſtabliſhed, a quarter of a league from that ſpot, a dock-yard for the conſtruction of ſhips of the line. Here, on our arrival, was an eighty gun ſhip almoſt finiſhed, the building of which had been directed by a French ſhipwright.

What determines the Turks to build part of their line-of-battle ſhips at the head of this gulf, is the facility of procuring ſhip-timber from the mountain, which borders on Olympus, from thoſe which lie between the Gulfs of Mundania and Nicomedia, and from thoſe ſituated to the ſouth of Lake Ascanius. Two ſpecies of oak and two ſpecies of fir are employed; the former ſerve for the keel, the ribs or frames, and the ſheathing; the latter likewiſe ſerve for the frames, and for all the pieces of the inſide of the veſſel.

The two ſpecies of oak which ſerve for ſhip-building, are the *hairy-cupped* oak *Plate XII.* and the *cluſter* oak. The former, which appears to be the

quercus

quercus cerris of LINNÆUS, is moſt common towards TOCAT, SINOPE, and TREBISOND. It is that which is brought to the arſenal of CONSTANTINOPLE from the ſouthern ſhores of the BLACK SEA, and which is moſt commonly employed for the frame-work of houſes. It is alſo met with in a great part of ASIA MINOR and SYRIA. It grows to a conſiderable height and furniſhes an excellent wood. Its leaves are deeply notched, ſmooth, of a dark green on their upper ſide, a little whitiſh and pubeſcent on their under. The ſcales of the cup are in elongated filaments, terminated in a point *.

The *cluſter* or *ſtalk-fruited* oak is more common than the other in the environs of MUNDANIA and CONSTANTINOPLE. It riſes to a great height, aſſumes a fine ſtem, and furniſhes a very hard wood. This tree, whoſe foliage differs little, at firſt ſight, from that of the *quercus cerris* or TURKEY oak, is nevertheleſs remarkable for its elongated fruit, borne on a ſlender pedicle, two or three inches in length †.

The Turks commonly make uſe of the *pinus pinea* or ſtone pine, and of a ſpecies which approaches to the *laricio* of the Corſicans. The former is common towards the maritime coaſts of ASIA MINOR and SYRIA; it alſo grows throughout all GREECE. It acquires a conſiderable ſize, and its wood, hard and reſinous, is frequently employed in the ſhip-building carried on at MUNDANIA, at the DARDANELLES, at MITYLENE, and at RHODES.

* *Quercus orientalis, latifolia, foliis ad coſtam pulchrè inciſis, glande maxima, cupula crinita.* TOURNEFORT. Coroll. page 40.—*Id. Voyage au Levant.* Vol. i. page 240.
POCOCKE's Travels, vol. ii. tab. 86.
Chêne à cupule chevelue, *quercus crinita.* LAM. Encycl. Bot. vol. i. page 718. No. 4.

† *Quercus orientalis, glande cylindri, formi, longo pediculo inſidente.* TOURNEFORT. Corall. page 40.
Chêne à grappe, *quercus racemoſa.* LAM. Encyclop. Botan. Vol. i. page 715. No. 1.

The

The other pine which we found in plenty in the environs of OLYMPUS and in all the interior of ASIA MINOR, bears a ſtraight ſtem, and acquires a conſiderable ſize and height. Its ſeeds, which I brought to PARIS, have come up very well in the garden of Citizen CELS, a cultivator, and member of the National Inſtitute.

The Gulf of MUNDANIA, *PLATE III.* is deep, rather narrow, and ſurrounded by lofty mountains: the one to the north is almoſt entirely calcareous; it is partly ſchiſtoſe, partly formed of ſandſtone at its baſe. The coaſt ſituated to the ſouth preſents, all along the ſhore, a hard, mixed rock, containing pebbles of porphyry, granite, &c. At the head of the gulf is ſeen a ſandy beach by no means elevated, and beyond, a ſmall fertile plain, watered by a rivulet, which bore the name of the town; and by a little river, known formerly by the name of *HYLAS*. In this plain are cultivated various kitchen-garden plants, ſuch as the ſolanum melongena, the hibiſcus eſculentus, the water-melon, and ſeveral fruit trees, among which we remarked the pomegranate-tree and a ſpecies of apple-tree with oblong fruit, of a very agreeable flavour. We procured ſeveral ſlips of this apple-tree, and ſent them to CONSTANTINOPLE in order to be there raiſed in the garden of the palace belonging to the embaſſy, till we ſhould have it in our power to convey them ourſelves to FRANCE.

It is not to be doubted that this apple-tree would thrive in the ſouth of FRANCE, ſince the temperature of GHEMLEK is at leaſt as warm as that of our ſouthern departments, where it is known that the apple-tree vegetates badly, and yields only worm-eaten fruit.

The pomegranates of GHEMLEK are held in ſuch eſtimation, that the Greeks of that village are obliged to pay their perſonal impoſt with a certain quantity

quantity of this fruit, which they ſend every year to CONSTANTINOPLE for the harem of the Grand Signior.

Although the olive-tree is much propagated on the riſing grounds of the environs, yet the inhabitants are not accuſtomed to extract oil from its fruit. They prefer gathering the olive when it is perfectly ripe in the months of Brumaire and Frimaire, in order to ſalt it and afterwards ſend it to the capital, where the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews make, during the whole year, a great conſumption of this fruit. The preparation of theſe olives conſiſts in throwing marine ſalt on them, in a rather large quantity, and ſtirring them about ſo that they may be thoroughly impregnated with it. They are afterwards put, for ſome days, into baſkets, and are ſlightly preſſed in order to facilitate the draining of the aqueous part, after which they are kept in earthen jars.

Theſe olives are eaten without any other preparation: they are ſometimes ſeaſoned with ſalt, vinegar, and oil; they are alſo ſerved up with ſolanum melongena, pimento, celery, and fennel pickled in vinegar, together with anchovies, and other ſalted fiſhes.

At GHEMLEK, as well as in the environs of BURSA, the white mulberry-tree is cultivated in plenty for the rearing of ſilk-worms; but here this tree is not permitted to grow, as in our climates: it is kept as a dwarf, and every year are taken off all the branches which have ſhot forth the preceding year, in order to be given, with their leaves on them, to the ſilk-worms. After this cutting, the mulberry-tree puſhes forth freſh ſhoots which are to be cut the following year, as they are wanted.

Theſe trees are planted according to the quality of the ſoil, at the diſtance of three or four feet from each other. They are not grafted, becauſe it has,

no doubt, been diſcovered that the ſmaller and more ſavoury leaves of the wild mulberry-tree are of a quality ſuperior to thoſe which are large, ſucculent, and by no means ſubſtantial. It is not, in general, the practice to give them manure; ſome are watered; but all receive two hoeings, the one at the moment of their vegetation, and the other at the end of the ſummer. This tree, thus cultivated, laſts a great number of years: it forms one of the principal articles of wealth of the environs of BURSA, and ſupplies a great many manufactories of ſilk ſtuffs eſtabliſhed in that town for the uſe of the Orientals.

A field planted with mulberry-trees which may have been permitted to riſe and grow, will, doubtleſs, furniſh a more conſiderable quantity of leaves, than if it were planted with dwarf mulberry-trees, although the latter are much cloſer to each other; but if a cultivator conſider the facility that he has of procuring at pleaſure all the leaf of the latter by cutting the young boughs, and the inappreciable advantage of being able to ſhelter, by a wall or a hedge, the dwarf mulberry-trees from a frozen wind which attacks and ſo frequently cauſes the leaf to wither, in our ſouthern departments, at the moment of its budding, and, by that means, deprives of their nouriſhment the ſilk-worms already hatched, it will be found, perhaps, that this culture is not to be neglected, and that it ought to be adopted, at leaſt in part, in the South of FRANCE.

The Greeks are great eaters of land-ſnails; but they have not, like the Romans, the art of fattening them and making them a monſtrous ſize by an abundant and choice food. They content themſelves with picking them up in the fields and keeping them in their houſes, for ſome days, in earthen jars, in order to make them void all the food on which they have ſubſiſted. They boil them for ſeveral hours in water with a little ſalt, after which they make a ſauce ſtrongly ſeaſoned with garlic, parſley, and ſpices. We ſaw the

Greeks

Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE and GHEMLEK eat almoſt every ſpecies of European ſnails, but more particularly the beautiful *cheſnut* ſnail, of which we give the figure, PLATE XVII. *fig.* 1. *a. b.*

It is larger than the *pomatia* or vine-ſnail: its ſpire is leſs elevated, and its mouth leſs large. The whole ſhell is generally coloured by large zones of a cheſnut brown, interſected by other pale zones, of which the one that traverſes the middle of the laſt volute, is diſtinguiſhed for its whitiſh colour. The ſemi-elliptic mouth is in proportion. The lip is obtuſe: it forms, without, a little border, and is coated, within, by a brown enamel which increaſes towards the umbilical region. The bottom of the opening is as if milk-white, although tranſmitting the exterior zones *.

Among the land-ſhells which we found in the environs of GHEMLEK, we ſhall remark two *bulimi* which hitherto appear to us unknown to naturaliſts.

1. The *zebra* bulimus, *fig.* 10. *a. b.* It is ſmooth, whitiſh, more or leſs marked longitudinally with lines ſomewhat rufous. Its twelve volutes are a little convex. Its ſummit is obtuſe, and its umbilical foramen very perceptible. Its mouth is white: it has three teeth placed in the form of a triangle, nearly at equal diſtances †.

2. The *oval* bulimus, *fig.* 12. *a. b.* It is of a whitiſh colour, clearer towards the mouth. It is compoſed of ſix volutes a little convex and ſmooth. Its ſhape is that of an egg, ſhort and obtuſe. It is provided with a little *umbilicus*. Its mouth is oblong, oblique, narrowed by ſix teeth

* HELIX caſtanea *magna, exumbilicata, depreſſiuſcule globoſa, rufo-caſtanea, pallido zonata, callo labii obtuſi interno et umbilicali fuſco.*

† BULIMUS zebra *parvulus, oblongus, umbilicatus, lævis, albidus rufo lineolatus; aputura alba æqualita triplicique verſu tridentata.*

nearly equal, very diſtinct, three on each ſide. From this mouth, it approaches to the bulimus ſcarabœus; it is not at all compreſſed, and its ſize is from three lines to three lines and a half*.

On the 20th of Frimaire (12th of December) the cold was ſharply felt for the firſt time; there fell five or ſix inches of ſnow, which brought a great many ſnipes into the neighbouring woods, and a vaſt number of ducks on the two little rivers and in the plain. The red partridge and the hare were every where in great plenty and of an exquiſite flavour. The captain, a determined ſportſman, had an excellent pointer, ſo that we lived well at little expenſe during our ſtay at GHEMLEK.

Citizen TOUSSAINT, a ſhip-builder, ſettled in the village, forgot nothing to make us paſs our time agreeably, and to procure us every information of which we ſtood in need. We learnt, with inquietude, that his zeal, for the ſervice of the PORTE, had ſeveral times expoſed him to being maſſacred by the Turks belonging to the country inland, who accuſed him improperly of being the cauſe of the oppreſſion which the government made them experience for the felling and the conveyance of the wood neceſſary for the conſtruction of the ſhip with which he was charged.

Theſe wretches, excited, perhaps, by the treaſurer, who hated a ſuperintendant whoſe manners and probity gave him umbrage, and by a few Greeks jealous of the preference which a ſtranger obtained over them, came one day to the number of upwards of fifty, in the intention of killing him. Citizen TOUSSAINT, robuſt and courageous, after having eſcaped from ſeveral among them, who aſſaulted him on his way from the dock-yard to the village, ſhut himſelf up in his houſe, mounted ſix blunderbuſſes in front of

* BULIMUS ovularis *minutus, ovatus, ſordide albidus, anfractibus ſex; vertia obtuſiſſimo; apertura oblique oblongiuſcula, ſexdentata.*

the

the entrance door, armed his wife and his ſervant, took himſelf a double-barrelled gun, two piſtols and a ſabre, placed a barrel of powder in the middle of the houſe, announced to theſe ferocious men, who attempted to burſt open the door, what were his means of defence, and the intention of burying himſelf under the ruins of his houſe if they were daring enough to enter it. Some attempted to get in at the windows; but every where they found a man who preſented death to them. The inhabitants of the village, through pity, attachment, or intereſt*, ſoon haſtened to his aſſiſtance: they had no great difficulty to diſarm, by their tears and their intreaties, men whom the courage of Citizen TOUSSAINT had already ſhaken, and who found it, no doubt, more prudent to retire to their habitations, than to hazard their life againſt him who defended ſo well his own.

Though the ſeaſon was not very proper for herborizing, we, nevertheleſs, found a few intereſting plants: we ſaw, in flower, on the hedges, the evergreen virgin's bower †, and towards the ſea-ſide a pretty daphne, which we met with again in SYRIA, in the interior of ASIA MINOR, and which TOURNEFORT had diſcovered in CRETE ‡. There was alſo on the riſing grounds a new ſpecies of *ſpartium* ||, a ſhrub which grows to the height of five feet, of

* The Turkiſh government, in caſe of murder, exacts a heavy fine from the inhabitants.

† *Clematis cirrhoſa.* LINN.—LAMARK, *Encyclopédie Botanique. Clématite.* No. 9.

‡ *Thymelæa Cretica, oleæ folio ſubtus villoſo.* TOURN. Corroll. page 41.
LAMARK, *Encyclop. Bot. Lauréole.* No. 22.
Daphne collina. SMITH. *Spicil.* Faſc. 2, page 16, tab. 18. *Aug.* Neapolitan Mezereon. T.

|| The ſtem while yet young of this *ſpartium* has three angles which are imperceptibly obliterated: it ſhoots forth a great number of branches, which are alternate, flexible, and of a whitiſh green. The leaves almoſt ſeſſile, are ternate, and deſtitute of ſtipules. The flowers, of a golden yellow and provided with bractes, are diſpoſed in cluſters at the top of the branches: to theſe ſucceed oblong pods truncated at their ſummit.

Citizen VENTENAT, who is publiſhing an account of the plants cultivated in the garden of Citizen CELS, has cauſed this ſpartium to be drawn, and intends to inſert it in one of his approaching faſciculi, under the name of *ſpartium parviflorum.*

which we ſent to the national garden of plants, and to Citizen CELS, ſome ſeeds that have come up very well.

We ſaw every where in the woods the andrachne and the arbutus loaded with flowers and fruit; the former, which feels the cold a little more than the other, grows not in the environs of CONSTANTINOPLE; we found it in plenty near the HELLESPONT, in the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, on the coaſt of ASIA MINOR, and in SYRIA. It ſhoots up ſometimes to the height of a tree; but it more generally preſerves that of a ſhrub. Its trunk, ſmooth and red when the epidermis of the year has fallen, the beauty of its foliage, its cluſtered flowers, its fruits of a bright red—every thing concurs to render it one of the moſt elegant ſhrubs of the LEVANT. If the arbutus is inferior to it in point of port, ſtems, foliage, and flowers, it claims a ſuperiority for its fruits. Thoſe of the andrachne are ſmaller than thoſe of the arbutus: they have a ſouriſh and rough taſte, which does not equal the rather flat ſweetneſs of the other.

From the neighbouring mountains are perceived the Lake *ASCANIUS* and the fertile plain of NICEA, of which I ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak elſewhere. It is reckoned two or three hours' walk from GHEMLEK to the lake, and ſeven or eight to go as far as NICEA. BURSA lies nearly at the ſame diſtance. Theſe places remind us of the ſecond battle fought near *CIUS*, in the year 193 of the chriſtian era, between LUCIUS SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS and PESCENNIUS NIGER, who diſputed with each other the empire of the Romans after the death of the virtuous PERTINAX, maſſacred by an undiſciplined and corrupt ſoldiery. They alſo remind us of the efforts made by the firſt Turkiſh emperors to get poſſeſſion of GHEMLEK*. OTHMAN, already maſter of almoſt all BITHYNIA, had attempted in vain to

* Some authors write *Kemluk*.

ſubdue

ſubdue BURSA and GHEMLEK: ORKHAN, his ſon, obtained the former without bloodſhed, and the latter after a year's ſiege.

Ships and boats which trade to BURSA, almoſt always repair to MUNDANIA, a ſmall town ſituated in the middle of the gulf, on the ruins of *MYRLEA* or *APAMEA*: it ſeldom happens that they come to GHEMLEK, becauſe the anchorage of MUNDANIA is very good, the communications between it and BURSA are more eaſy, more frequent, and the diſtance from it is leſs.

On the firſt of Nivoſe, (21ſt of December,) at ſun-riſe, the wind being to the eaſt-north-eaſt, we weighed anchor, and ſtood on for our deſtination. Before night we paſſed the little Iſland of *CALO LIMNO*, commonly known under the name of POPE'S ISLAND: it is by no means elevated, almoſt flat, tolerably fertile, as we were told, and inhabited only by Greeks. This is the ancient *BESBICOS*, ſituated three leagues from the coaſt, facing the river *RHYNDACUS*, at this day called *MIKALITZA*.

The wind freſhened a little, and became north-eaſt at ſun-ſet. At three or four o'clock in the morning, the captain, having judged that that we had paſſed the Iſland of MARMORA, hove to in order not to enter the channel by night. We accordingly found ourſelves, at break of day, to the north-weſt of that iſland, two leagues from the Iſlet of *GAÏDOURA*.

MARMORA has received its name from a white marble, a little veined with gray and bluiſh, which is thence extracted in great quantities. Although its grain is not fine, nor its colours beautiſul and mixed, the Greeks, nevertheleſs, eſteemed it formerly and frequently made uſe of it: they diſtinguiſhed it by the name of CYZICUS marble, becauſe that peninſula furniſhed, perhaps, ſome of the ſame quality, or becauſe the town of the ſame name ſerved

as

as an emporium for it. Fragments of it are found among the ruins of almoſt all the ancient cities: pillars of it are ſeen in various places, and particularly in the moſques of CONSTANTINOPLE. At the preſent day this marble is worked only for the ſepulchral ſtones made uſe of by the Turks, the Armenians, and the Europeans: it is ſeldom employed in the conſtruction of houſes.

This iſland is about twelve leagues in circuit: it is lofty, mountainous, and tolerably fertile; it contains ſeveral towns or villages rather populous: it has two harbours by no means extenſive, ſituated to the ſouth. Veſſels ſurpriſed by a northerly wind ſomewhat ſtrong, go thither ſometimes to ſeek a ſhelter. The inhabitants have a few flocks of ſheep; they cultivate the vine, the olive-tree, and cotton, and gather various ſpecies of grain.

MARMORA formerly bore the names of *NEVRIS*, *ELAPHONNESUS*, and *PROCONNESUS**, on account of the quantity of ſtags which were there to be met with. I believe that none exiſt there at this day, as the woods are deſtroyed, and the mountains are almoſt naked.

On entering into the channel, we with pleaſure directed our looks towards the coaſt of EUROPE: we remarked a mountain parallel to the ſhore, at no great diſtance from the ſea, and beheld a fertile ſoil, tolerably well cultivated. The coaſt of ASIA fixed our attention more; it is flat, marſhy to beyond the GRANICUS, and extremely fertile in the places which are not inundated: the mountains that are diſcovered at ſome diſtance, are very wooded, and loftier than thoſe of EUROPE. We for a long time contemplated Mount OLYMPUS entirely covered with ſnow, and bad adieu to CONSTANTINOPLE, to the PROPONTIS, and to CYZICUS, which we regretted not having

* Nevris, νεβρος, the fawn of a doe; Elaphonneſus, from ελαφος, a ſtag, and from νησος, iſland; Proconneſus, from προ, προκος, which alike ſignify a young ſtag, and from νησος, iſland.

viſited,

vifited, and to all thofe places fo famous in hiftory, and fo worthy of that fame.

The objects to which our eyes were directed on both fides of the channel, difappeared with the greateft rapidity: we had the wind right aft, and the ftream of the waters accelerated our progrefs, fo that, at ten o'clock in the morning, we found ourfelves off GALLIPOLI. This town, at prefent the moft confiderable of thofe fituated on the HELLESPONT, paffed into the power of the Turks, under the reign of JOHN PALEOLOGUS, and was taken by SOLIMAN, fon of ORKHAN. It contains within its walls about fifteen or fixteen thoufand inhabitants, Greeks, Muffulmans, and Jews; and is fituated on a ledge of rocks which the waters have undermined. It projects, and forms a fort of cape, at the extremity of which is placed a lighthoufe for guiding mariners, and pointing out to them the route which they are to take when they enter the channel by night. Another is feen for the fame purpofe, almoft oppofite, on the coaft of ASIA. The channel grows narrow all at once off GALLIPOLI, fo that it is not a league in width. The fea forms a cove to the fouth of the town, which ferves as a harbour for boats which come and anchor there, as well as for fhips thwarted by the wind.

The mountain, of which I have before fpoken, has imperceptibly funk, and gives place to hills deprived of culture and of all ornament. That of ASIA, on the contrary, has drawn nearer and prefents a natural landfcape of the greateft beauty.

LAMPSACUS, off which we found ourfelves almoft immediately, poffeffes a charming foil, extremely fertile, and well watered. This town, formerly much more confiderable than GALLIPOLI, was famous for its gardens, its vineyards, and the goodnefs of its wines, for its temples, and, above all, for the worfhip which the inhabitants paid to the god PRIAPUS. It is no longer

any thing at this day but a mean village, inhabited by ſome Greeks and ſome Turks: it ſtill preſerves a few vine-plots on the riſing grounds in the neighbourhood; but its fine gardens have diſappeared: on the ruins of its temples, has been erected a moſque, and the worſhip paid to the God preſerver of the Univerſe, is replaced by offerings to the *Panayia*.

As far as the Point of Nagara, on which are ſtill to be remarked the ruins of Abydos, the Helleſpont preſents nothing remarkable but the fertile and verdant hills by which it is bordered, and a few vallies more or leſs cultivated. Although the diſtance from Lampſacus to Abydos is alſo upwards of fifteen miles, our progreſs was ſo rapid, that we had ſoon cleared that ſpace, and were able, about one o'clock in the afternoon, to bring up at the excellent anchorage which lies to the ſouth of this cape. We haſtened to land our baggage, and to proceed to the town, nearly two miles diſtant. Citizen Bermond, vice-conſul of the Republic, had been expecting us for ſome days; he had had the civility to have apartments prepared for us in the conſul's houſe: he was ſo kind as to accompany us in our excurſions, and neglected nothing to render the ſtay that we made at the Dardanelles as agreeable as uſeful.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER II.

Stay at the Dardanelles.—*Deſcription of the* Helleſpont; *and of the towns ſituated on its ſhores.—Productions and commerce of thoſe countries.*

THE HELLESPONT, or Sea of HELLE, is thus named becauſe that princeſs, daughter of ATHAMAS, king of THEBES, wiſhing to conceal herſelf, with her brother PHRYXUS, from the perſecutions of INO, their mother-in-law, had the misfortune to be there drowned. It is ſaid that, mounted with her brother on a ram covered with a golden fleece inſtead of wool, ſhe ventured to croſs the channel which ſeparates THRACE from TROAS; but when ſhe found herſelf in the middle of the waters, ſhe was ſo terrified at the danger to which ſhe had imprudently expoſed herſelf, that ſhe fell into the ſea, where ſhe met with the death which ſhe was endeavouring to avoid. The Greeks, touched by her misfortunes, in order to eternize the remembrance of this event, gave the name of the unfortunate princeſs to the arm of the ſea in which ſhe periſhed.

This ſea is more known at the preſent day by the name of the *Strait* or *Channel of the* DARDANELLES, becauſe the modern town at which we had juſt landed, is called by the Europeans, the DARDANELLES; a name which has been tranſmitted to it from the ancient *DARDANA*, *DARDANIA*, or *DARDANUS*, ſituated a few miles lower down; for, according to the ancient geographers, it was eight miles to the ſouth of ABYDOS, towards Cape *TRAPEZA*, commonly diſtinguiſhed by the name of *BARBER'S CAPE*. The river RHODIUS, on which the modern town is built, flowed at nearly an equal diſtance from ABYDOS and DARDANUS.

In this town are reckoned ſcarcely four thouſand inhabitants, Greeks, Muſſulmans, and Jews. Its poſition is agreeable, its territory is fertile, and its productions are very diverſified. To the north-eaſt, is ſeen a riſing ground covered with vines; to the ſouth, a plain terminated by a mountain by no means lofty: this plain extends to the eaſt, and then forms a valley extremely fertile, watered by the RHODIUS. At the extremity of this valley are found indications of a volcano: among others are to be ſeen conſiderable blocks of granite, the quartzoſe part of which is almoſt entirely converted into glaſs. A little farther on, is a fertile and circular bottom, of ſmall extent, ſurrounded by mountains covered with wood.

In the territory of the DARDANELLES are cultivated cotton, ſeſamum, various kitchen-garden plants, the vine, the olive-tree, and ſeveral ſpecies of fruit-trees. The orange-tree begins to grow here in the open air; and a tolerably large quantity of grain is here collected. The neighbouring mountains furniſh the *velanida** and gall-nut uſed in trade.

The waters of the HELLESPONT have a rapid ſtream oppoſite the caſtle, ſituated at the lower end of the town, while they are tranquil or run up into the cove, which lies at the upper part, and which ſerves as a harbour for the ſmall craft that trade brings thither, as well as to veſſels and to ſhips of war that ſometimes come to an anchor there. The captains of theſe two laſt-mentioned prefer, however, both in winter and ſummer, the anchorage of NAGARA, becauſe they are more ſheltered from the north wind, and becauſe its bottom is better.

* This is the name given by the modern Greeks to the cup of the acorn produced by the *quercus Ægilops*. In dyeing, the Orientals, the Italians, and the Engliſh, employ this cup, as well as the gall-nut of the *quercus infectoria*.—*Tranſlator*.

The

The HELLESPONT, at firſt ſight, reſembles a majeſtic river quietly carrying its waters to the ocean; but, confined within its bed, it is never known to paſs the limits which Nature has traced for it. Here are not ſeen thoſe devaſtating overflowings to which countries croſſed by great rivers are too frequently expoſed. Neither are there to be met with, in the environs, thoſe infectious marſhes, thoſe ſtagnant waters, ſo common towards the mouth of rivers: here the lands are cultivated, or are naturally covered with verdure even cloſe to the water. And if the ſhores of the HELLESPONT are not fecundified by canals of irrigation, if the waters depoſit not on the lands a fertilizing mud, the communications which it eſtabliſhes between the PROPONTIS and the BLACK SEA on the one ſide, the MEDITERRANEAN and the OCEAN on the other, the advantages which agriculture and induſtry can derive from the facility of conveyance, are benefits greater, perhaps, than thoſe which would reſult, to theſe countries, from the vicinity of a great river.

The RHODIUS takes its ſource to the north-eaſt of Mount IDA: it receives a few rivulets which flow from the neighbouring mountains, and, after having traverſed a ſpace of twelve or fifteen miles, it diſcharges itſelf into the HELLESPONT, by the ſide of the caſtle of the DARDANELLES. Its waters, by no means abundant in ſummer, are kept back and employed in the irrigation of the lands; but in winter, ſwelled by the rains which are frequent in that ſeaſon, it occupies a bed ſufficiently large to deſerve the name of river. The inhabitants of the DARDANELLES have conſtructed a wooden bridge at ſome diſtance from its mouth, in order to be able to croſs at all times to the left bank, and repair to the fields that they cultivate beyond it.

Behind the caſtle, between the town and the river, is a tolerably extenſive walk, naturally turfed and ſhaded by very tall plane-trees. Although this place is very cool and very agreeable, it is ſcarcely at all frequented by the in-

habitants of the town: one there meets with none but Europeans, whom commerce and curiofity bring into this country.

Three miles from the DARDANELLES, in afcending towards the north, are found, on a fpot refembling a plain of a triangular figure, a few veftiges of the ancient ABYDOS. The ground is elevated and covered with heaps of rubbifh, among which are to be diftinguifhed bricks, fragments of potter's ware, pieces of granite, and marble of every fpecies. A few fhapelefs maffes of mafonry are perceived along the anchorage, fituated to the fouth-weft. On the neighbouring coaft is feen a road deeply dug, by which the inhabitants of ABYDOS repaired to a fertile plain that lies to the eaft. The city occupied the fouthern part of the triangular fpot which I have juft mentioned, and extended to part of the rifing ground that faces the channel.

There is not, on the fhores of the HELLESPONT, a fituation more agreeable and more advantageous than this for a town; for, independently of the view of the whole channel, of its two fhores, and even of TENEDOS *, befides the means which there would be to fortify it, being furrounded by the fea and an infulated hill, the anchorage is unqueftionably the moft fpacious and the moft fafe of the HELLESPONT; and if the Turks really wifhed to prohibit the entrance of the PROPONTIS to an enemy's fleets, there would be no place more proper for the erection of a battery, than the point of NAGARA; for fhips always approach this point in fpite of themfelves, on account of the falient angle which the land makes in this place. Befides, this part of the channel is almoft as narrow as that of the fecond caftles.

Two leagues to the fouth-eaft of ABYDOS, is feen SILLEIS, a fmall rivulet which would no longer be thought of, did it not indicate the pofition of

* The gently-rifing ground of TROAS allows the Ifland of TENEDOS to be perceived.

ARISBA,

ARISBA, near which the army of ALEXANDER encamped, while that conqueror was occupied in viſiting the ruins of TROY.

Geographers are not agreed reſpecting the poſition of the ancient DARDANUS: ſome place it on Cape TRAPEZA; and others, at the foot of Mount IDA. I found not in the environs of that cape, commonly called *BARBER's CAPE*, any veſtige, any trace of a town; neither did I perceive rubbiſh, bricks, nor heaps of ſtones. The very ground, uneven, hilly, by no means fertile, and deſtitute of water, appears little calculated for the ſituation of a town of any conſequence. I ſuſpect, with the latter, that it ſtood inland; for in the times when people could appreciate all the advantages of a maritime trade, and even ſometimes receded from the ſea-ſhores, in order to be leſs expoſed to the incurſions of pirates, they muſt have preferred ſuch ſituations as placed the inhabitants within reach of the fields which they cultivated, and from which they derived all their riches.

Beyond the cape, the coaſt is white and chalky, which has occaſioned it to be given by mariners the name of *WHITE SPOTS:* here it is that veſſels, waiting for a favourable wind for aſcending the HELLESPONT, generally anchor.

We were not more fortunate in our ſearch for *OPHRYNIUM*, which is placed between DARDANUS and RHŒTEUM: as for the latter, it appears, that it is ſituated between the promontory of that name and the tomb of AJAX, to judge of it from the fragments of potter's ware and bricks which are there to be found; for it is well known, that nothing indicates in a more certain manner the poſition of ancient cities. Monuments crumble away, the materials are carried off, the plough levels the ſoil; fragments of bricks and potter's ware alone reſiſt time and the hand of man.

When

When you have paſſed the tomb of AJAX, ſituated on an eminence, you ſee even beyond the SIMOÏS, a low, ſandy plain near the ſea, very fertile in proportion as you recede from it. But before we travel over TROAS, and viſit thoſe places which hiſtory has rendered ſo famous, let us return to the HELLESPONT, and tranſport ourſelves to the coaſt of EUROPE.

According to the poets and the greater part of the Greek hiſtorians, SESTOS was ſituated oppoſite to ABYDOS, at the moſt narrow part of the channel. Thoſe two towns are become famous from the loves, real or fabulous, of LEANDER and HERO, whoſe end was ſo unfortunate. LEANDER lived at ABYDOS: HERO was at SESTOS, a prieſteſs of VENUS. Too confident, no doubt, in his ſtrength and ſkill, LEANDER, in order not to be diſcovered, for a long time, ſwam acroſs the HELLESPONT, guided by a torch which his miſtreſs lighted on the top of a tower: but, in a tempeſtuous night, LEANDER, having too imprudently committed himſelf to the waves, could not reach the other ſhore, and was unfortunately ſwallowed up by the agitated waters. HERO, in her deſpair, threw herſelf into the ſea, in order to ſhare the fate of her lover.

PROCOPIUS places SESTOS in the cove the neareſt to ABYDOS: he even adds, that the emperor JUSTINIAN cauſed a citadel to be built near that city: the remains of this citadel are ſtill to be ſeen cloſe to the ſea-ſhore. The firſt courſes of maſonry in hewn-ſtone, on which the wall was erected, are there to be diſtinguiſhed. This wall forms a talus of about fifteen inches. The tower, ſituated at the extremity of the citadel, is round and in a great meaſure deſtroyed: the remains of an arch, which formed the firſt ſtory, are ſtill to be perceived. Its walls, as well as thoſe of the citadel, are built with ſeveral courſes of rough, unhewn ſtones, and ſeveral courſes of bricks laid flat the one on the other in three or four rows. On the declivity of the hill, the walls of the ancient city may very eaſily be traced. Within the

enclofure of thefe walls, lie heaps of ftones, among which are to be diftinguifhed bricks, fragments of potter's ware, pieces of granite and marble. It is probable, that this rubbifh has been heaped up for the purpofe of clearing the ground, and putting it into a ftate of cultivation; and that, in this manner, the remains of the monuments that might there be met with have been deftroyed.

Four miles from SESTOS, in afcending the channel, is another harbour, near which is feen only a fimple habitation of dervifes, occupied by three or four Muffulman monks. This anchorage, one of the beft of the whole channel, is little known to moft of the mariners who frequent the feas of the LEVANT, becaufe they prefer, with reafon, that of NAGARA as more within reach of MAÏTA and the DARDANELLES, where they procure fuch provifions as they are in want of.

Facing ABYDOS, a fhort league to the fouth-weft of SESTOS, is feen at the head of an extenfive and not very deep cove, the village of MAÏTA, built on the ruins of *MATYDOS*. Some remains of old mafonry are ftill to be found on a hillock, which overlooks the modern town fituated on the feafhore. At a little diftance from MADYTOS was formerly *CŒLOS PORTUS*, a fmall town which was witnefs of the fea-fight that took place between the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians, a fight in which the latter were conquered and obliged to give up to their rivals the empire of the HELLESPONT.

The territory of MAÏTA, although by no means fertile, furnifhes fome fruits, a little corn, fome wine, and, in particular, cotton. Moft of the inhabitants are feamen: the others apply themfelves to the culture of the lands and to the manufacture of fail-cloth, for which they employ the

cotton

cotton that they gather, and a ſmall quantity which they purchaſe, either at the DARDANELLES or at GALLIPOLI.

Two leagues from MAÏTA, facing the DARDANELLES, at the moſt narrow part of the channel, is ſeen a village by no means conſiderable, known by the name of the *SECOND CASTLE OF EUROPE*. The citadel which ſtands below the village, on the ſea-ſhore, and of which TOURNEFORT has given a drawing, is no better calculated for defending at this day the entrance of the channel, than that of ASIA: neither the one nor the other would not long hold out againſt ſhips of the line that might attack them. Their monſtrous guns, without carriages, loaded with bullets of marble or granite, of about two feet in diameter, would ſoon be abandoned by gunners, who could neither manage them, nor point them, nor even load them with facility.

This village, ſituated at the foot of a hill rather lofty, affords to the inhabitants of the DARDANELLES a very agreeable landſcape, embelliſhed almoſt always by the ſhips and boats which are inceſſantly aſcending the HELLESPONT, or making ſail for the ARCHIPELAGO.

The inhabitants of this village are leſs induſtrious than thoſe of MAÏTA: the greater part of them are Turks attached to the duty of the citadel, or employed in carrying over in boats the perſons who are repairing from the one town to the other. It is the Greeks who apply themſelves more particularly to the culture of the lands. I ſaw, for the firſt time, in their territory, hives ſhut up in buildings more or leſs ſpacious, according to the quantity of bees that were there reared. The object of this building in maſonry, carefully ſhut, is to ſecure thoſe inſects from the cold during the winter, from the heat during the ſummer, and at all times from the hand of man, far more dangerous than the inclemency of the ſeaſons.

A league from the ſecond caſtle of EUROPE, on deſcending the HELLESPONT, is perceived on a height another dwelling of derviſes, inhabited by a few Turkiſh monks, whoſe function conſiſts in making ſignals for the veſſels and ſhips of war which enter the channel, and in diſplaying from time to time the Ottoman flag. Thence to the firſt caſtle of EUROPE, the coaſt is uncultivated, and preſents nothing remarkable, except a tomb which is ſuppoſed to be that of HECUBA, placed above the promontory of *CYNOSSEMA*, and the remains of an aqueduct, which probably brought the water neceſſary for the inhabitants of *ELÆUS*, a town formerly ſituated at the entrance of the HELLESPONT, on the coaſt of EUROPE.

On the ruins of ELŒUS, at this day is ſeen a Turkiſh village, called *ELBAHAR-KALESSI*, at the foot of which is built the firſt caſtle of EUROPE. To the weſt of this caſtle, is ſtill ſeen the tomb of PROTESILAUS, king of THESSALY, killed by HECTOR, and a few veſtiges of a temple to which his devotion to his country's cauſe had entitled him. PROTESILAUS was the firſt of the Greek heroes who ſet his foot on the coaſt of ASIA, although the oracle had thrice announced, that the man who firſt landed on the Trojan ſhore, would loſe his life.

Thence to CRITIA, a Greek village ſituated to the north, up the country, may be reckoned about two hours' journey. It is well known, that there was a town of the ſame name in the Cherſoneſus of THRACE, at a little diſtance from the ſea-ſhore, in the ſame place, probably, where the modern village is built. You arrive there by an uneven ground, and a ſmall plain, the earth of which is partly whitiſh and cretaceous.

We had no where ſeen the red partridge ſo common as in this plain and in the groves of pine which ſtand in the environs. The hare is here in equal plenty and very well taſted. During the winter, a great many woodcocks

 are

are found in the uncultivated, ſhaded, and moiſt vallies. Neither is the wild boar ſcarce: as the latter does a great deal of injury to culture, and is particularly fond of grapes, the Greeks hunt it ſometimes and kill a great number: but the quadruped the moſt common in all theſe countries, is the jackal, of which I ſhall frequently have occaſion to ſpeak.

In the environs of the DARDANELLES, I was one day witneſs of the manner in which the Greeks ſhoot partridges, leſs with a view of procuring themſelves an excellent article of game, than for the purpoſe of diminiſhing the number of the enemies of their crops. This ſport conſiſts in carrying a gun and a ſort of banner rolled up, ſtriped with very lively colours, ſomewhat ſimilar to a harlequin's jacket. As ſoon as they perceive at a diſtance a covey of partridges, they unroll the banner, and approach by degrees thoſe birds till they have got within gun-ſhot of them. The fowler thruſts into the ground the ſtaff of the banner, and, through an aperture made on purpoſe, he fires on the partridges, which are ſo terrified, that they ſquat and ſuffer themſelves to be killed, the one after the other, rather than fly away. The greateſt difficulty the fowler experiences, is to perceive them; for that purpoſe, he turns round them, conſtantly concealed behind the banner, and as ſoon as he perceives one of them, he fires at it, and goes on in the ſame manner till he has deſtroyed the whole covey. This ſport is practicable, as is ſeen, only in cultivated plains, and on lands not much covered with herbage and buſhes.

The portion of land compriſed between the HELLESPONT and the Gulf of SAROS, known by the name of the Cherſoneſus or peninſula of THRACE, is little more than from three to four leagues in its greateſt breadth: it is nearly twenty from the ſouthern extremity to the long wall, *MACRONTICHOS*, which ſeparates the peninſula from the continent. At the end of this wall, towards the PROPONTIS, was the town of the ſame name, on which there

now

now remain only a few habitations that the harbour maintains. Inland, ſtands the village of *Hexamila*, which has preſerved the name that was given it, on account of the diſtance that there is from the one ſea to the other.

The land of this peninſula is uneven, hilly, and not ſo good, in general, as that of the coaſt of Asia. There are, however, a few vallies of the greateſt fertility, and ſome plains tolerably productive. The lands are chalky in ſome places: the hills and riſing grounds are all calcareous: here are to be found ſome foſſil ſhells, to which there are none analogous belonging to the ſeas of Europe. In the environs of Maïta, is ſeen, at the foot of hills, a ſoft ſand-ſtone, or a pure ſand; and in the cove of Sestos is remarked, at upwards of twenty feet above the level of the ſea, a tolerably thick bank of marine conchylia, the ſpecies of which all belong to the Mediterranean. This bank formerly extended, no doubt, into Asia, for, beyond the hill of Abydos, the plain affords in a rather large quantity the ſame ſhells that we had ſeen in this bank *.

Different French, Italian, and Engliſh merchants, have ſeveral times attempted to eſtabliſh commercial houſes at the Dardanelles; but they have never been able to ſucceed in this: they had, undoubtedly, not remarked that the merchants of Constantinople, preſerving over them the advantage of reſiding in the capital, where the conſumption is very conſiderable, were equally within reach of furniſhing the articles of which the towns ſituated on the Helleſpont are in want, and of there making, with no leſs facility than economy, the purchaſe of thoſe which are demanded of them. The Jew, Greek, and Armenian traders, through whoſe hands it is neceſſary to paſs in every caſe, are very glad to preſerve the connexions which they have with the merchants of Constantinople, whom they conſider,

* *Oſtrea edulis, venus chione, venus cancellata, ſolen vagina, buccinum reticulatum, cerinthium vulgatum, &c.*

beſides, as better ſtocked, and better enabled to make the payments which they indicate to them.

The articles of exportation which the towns ſituated on the HELLESPONT can furniſh, are:

Two or three hundred bales of cotton of various qualities.
Two hundred quintals of coarſe ſpun cotton.
A great many coarſe cotton cloths.
Three or four hundred bales of wool of inferior quality.
A great quantity of TURKEY leather or Morocco, prepared in the DARDANELLES and at GALLIPOLI.
Three or four hundred quintals of galls.
A more conſiderable quantity of *velanida*.
Twelve or fifteen thouſand hare-ſkins.
Sixty or eighty quintals of wax.
Very little madder root.

MAÏTA and the DARDANELLES ſend a little wine to the capital, and alſo ſell ſome to the captains of the veſſels that may chance to anchor in their harbour or in the environs. The latter find at all times, at the DARDANELLES, biſcuit, new bread, poultry, eggs, herbage, different vegetables, and other proviſions of which they may ſtand in need during their voyage.

At the DARDANELLES is manufactured a vaſt deal of coarſe potter's ware, the greateſt part of which is ſent to CONSTANTINOPLE. Although its quality is very good, and the varniſh adheres well, one is ſurpriſed to ſee on it flowers, and other ornaments, which are effaced by time, and are not incorporated with the varniſh.

The

The Republic of VENICE was formerly the only power that had a conſul of its nation at the DARDANELLES. FRANCE, ENGLAND, GERMANY, RUSSIA, and the other maritime powers, had there only agents of the country, Jews or Greeks, who diſcharged the functions of conſul, if not with intelligence and probity, at leaſt with the greateſt zeal, by means of a barat of drogueman, which placed them under the immediate protection of an ambaſſador, and afforded them the enjoyment of all the privileges granted to Europeans. But within theſe few years, the French government has here eſtabliſhed a vice-conſulate, hoping that a national agent would protect more efficaciouſly the veſſels which are obliged to make a ſtay here; that he would furniſh, beſides, to the ſhips of war that anchor at the WHITE SPOTS, the aſſiſtance of which they might be in want, and that he would tranſmit to the ambaſſador all the news which his ſituation enables him to gather.

Ships of war belonging to the powers in amity with the Ottoman PORTE, enter the channel without obſtacle, and caſt anchor at the *WHITE SPOTS* and off *BARBER'S POINT*; but they cannot, in any caſe, paſs the ſecond caſtles without an expreſs permiſſion of the ſultan. Merchant-veſſels may ſtand on if the wind permit, and proceed directly to CONSTANTINOPLE, or to any port of the PROPONTIS that they may think proper; but, on their return, they are obliged to anchor at NAGARA or at the DARDANELLES, in order to be there viſited. It is generally the day after their arrival that this viſit takes place: its object is, to aſcertain whether all the duties have been paid at the capital; whether prohibited goods have not been ſhipped without permiſſion; or whether there are not on board runaway ſlaves or ſubjects, not Muſſulmans, who would wiſh to quit their country.

CHAPTER III.

Excurſion to Troas.—*Deſcription of that country.—Sketch of its population and productions.—Of the oaks which produce the gall-nut and the velanida uſed in trade.*

After having viſited, ſounding as we went, almoſt all the coaſts of the Helleſpont, and having penetrated, in various points, into the interior of the country, in order to aſcertain its productions, we haſtened to viſit Troas, and caſt our eye over places which the genius of the Greeks and Romans have rendered ſo famous. We embarked at the Dardanelles on the 10th of Pluvioſe (29th of January) on board a Turkiſh caïque, with a northerly wind rather freſh, and in two hours we reached the firſt caſtle of Asia. We immediately cauſed our mattreſſes and our proviſions to be carried to the Greek village ſituated on Cape Sigeum, where we hoped to be more quiet, and to find greater facility for proſecuting our obſervations far from the ſuſpicious looks of the Muſſulmans.

We were very agreeably ſurpriſed in viſiting Troas, with the *Iliad* in one hand, and the map of Citizen Lechevalier in the other, to find the greateſt exactneſs in the pictures which Homer has tranſmitted to us. It is true, there is ſcarcely any longer to be found a trace of the cities which exiſted in theſe countries: the inhabitants even have diſappeared; but the courſe of the Simoïs and that of the Scamander have not changed: we perceive, on the banks of the latter, the marſhes of which Homer makes mention: time has not been able to deſtroy the hillocks of earth under which repoſe the aſhes of the heroes whoſe names have been handed down to us;

us; the waves of the ſea have not produced any perceptible change on the coaſt: the lands are ſtill fertile, and ſuſceptible of ſupporting a great number of inhabitants: foreſts of pines and oaks ſtill cover Mount IDA, and all the mountains which preſent themſelves to the eaſt of TROAS.

Some of the learned have been deſirous of proving that the war of which HOMER ſpeaks, has not taken place; they add, that TROY has never exiſted, and that the whole *Iliad* is a romance. The object of our reſearches, in travelling over theſe countries, was not to know whether we ought to conſider as a fable, embelliſhed with the charms of poetry, or as an hiſtorical trait conſiderably altered, that long and cruel war which all the ſovereigns of GREECE waged againſt the Trojans for a princeſs carried off from her huſband; a terrible war, in which, on both ſides, a great number of warriors and heroes were ſacrificed: a war in which all the gods of OLYMPUS took a very active part. The illuſion produced in our mind by the writings of the prince of poets, was too dear to us to endeavour to deſtroy it by reflections perhaps judicious.

We had ſo much pleaſure in meaſuring the extent of the camp of the Greeks, in beholding the place of their debarkation, in following the banks of the SIMOÏS and of the SCAMANDER, witneſſes of ſo many exploits; in looking for the hill of fig-trees, the object of ANDROMECA's inquietude; in finding again the traces of ILION and PERGAMUS, in contemplating thoſe heaps of earth under which repoſe the aſhes of the Greek and Trojan heroes: we had ſo much pleaſure, I ſay, that we ſhould, perhaps, at that moment have turned a deaf ear to him who might have wiſhed to perſuade us that nothing in theſe places affords intereſt and retraces recollections.

But whatever opinion may be adopted reſpecting the war of TROY, and the exiſtence of that city, ſince the publication of the intereſting travels of

Citizen LECHEVALIER in TROAS, and the luminous applications which he makes of the paſſages of HOMER, it is no longer allowable to doubt that the author of the Iliad had the moſt exact knowledge of a country in the vicinity of the places which he inhabited, and that he had even travelled over it before he traced the plan of his poem; and, in that caſe, TROAS and the poem preſent to the traveller all the intereſt of truth.

The diſtance from the DARDANELLES to the firſt caſtle of ASIA, *KOUM-KALESSI*, is about four leagues. Thence to Cape SIGEUM, on which is built *YENITCHER-KEUI*, is near half a league: the ground continues riſing in this latter ſpace, and you meet with two tombs, which are preſumed to be thoſe of ACHILLES and PATROCLUS. The town, ſituated behind the caſtle, on the left bank of the SIMOÏS, on a ſandy ſoil perfectly level, is not near ſo extenſive or ſo populous as the DARDANELLES. Neither is the air there ſo wholeſome, on account of the marſhes which are on the oppoſite bank of the river, and whoſe putrid exhalations, in ſummer, are carried over the town by the north north-eaſt wind, which blows uninterruptedly during that ſeaſon. Thoſe which are ſeen in the plain, to the ſouth of the town, alſo contribute to occaſion intermittent fevers, and remitting putrid ones, towards the end of the ſummer, when the wind returns to the ſouth. The former, anciently known by the name of *PALUS-STOMA*, or *STOMALIMNE'*, are ſupplied by the waters of the ſea; the latter are produced by the waters of the SCAMANDER, which ſpread over the low lands that ſurround it.

Beyond the firſt-mentioned marſhes lies a little cove, which is thought to be the harbour where the Greeks who came to the ſiege of TROY landed: the Turks call it *KARAMLIKLIMANI*.

The *Thymbrius* takes its ſource to the north north-weſt of Mount Ida, traverſes a fertile plain, almoſt entirely cultivated, and diſcharges itſelf into the Simoïs, at a little diſtance from the ſea. If you aſcend this river, whoſe direction is from eaſt to weſt, after an hour's progreſs, you find, at ſome diſtance from the left bank, the ſpot which Constantine had firſt choſen for making the capital of the empire of the East. If you ſtill proceed for another long half hour, you ſee, on the right bank, a little village called *Haleli-keui*; and quite cloſe to it, towards the north-eaſt, the ruins of a temple, which is ſuppoſed to have been that of Apollo Thymbrœus. At a ſhort league further on, ſtill following the rivulet, you find *Thumbrek-keui*, a village built probably on the ruins of *Thymbra*, a town ſituated formerly at a little diſtance from Dardanus, of which it was a dependency.

It was in the plain of Thymbra, in the environs of the temple of Apollo, that Achilles, according to ſome authors, was ſtruck by the fatal arrow which Paris let fly at him: Apollo himſelf, by their account, had directed the arrow, in order to avenge the death of Hector, and that of a great number of Trojans, who had likewiſe periſhed by the hand of Achilles.

We leave to antiquaries to tell us whether the town and the plain had received their name from ſavory, an odoriferous plant, called *thymbra* by the Greeks, or whether that name was given to it by Dardanus, the founder of the town in honour of *Thymbrios* his friend: we ſhall only ſay that ſavory grows in abundance in this plain and on all the riſing grounds in the neighbourhood.

On quitting this village, we directed our route to the ſouth, leaving on the left the firſt chain of Mount Ida. After two hours' journey on foot over an uneven, hilly ſoil, almoſt entirely uncultivated, we arrived at another

village called *Alch-keui:* the Simoïs flows a quarter of a league farther. We met with ſeveral flocks of broad-tailed ſheep: we inquired of the ſhepherds, whether there were not on the neighbouring mountains ferocious animals, ſuch as hyænas, ounces, wolves, and jackals, which came to attack their flocks and carry off ſome ſheep: they anſwered us, that this happened to them very ſeldom, becauſe they kept a good watch. We learnt that there were on theſe mountains bears, wild boars, and jackals; but we never could make ourſelves underſtood when we talked of the hyæna and the ounce, which, in the ſequel, we found common in Syria, in Egypt, and in Persia. It alſo appeared to us that there were very few wolves in theſe countries, but a great many jackals, which are known to be an animal by no means ferocious, and ſcarcely ſtronger than the fox: jackals are dangerous to ſheep and goats, only on account of their going in very numerous packs.

In the middle of the ſpring, when the plain begins to be ſtripped of its verdure by the action of a burning ſun, the ſhepherds of theſe countries, as well as thoſe of the ſouth of France and of Spain, go and ſeek in the vallies, and on the mountains up the country, paſtures which the coolneſs and moiſture there maintain in that ſeaſon. They do not return to the vicinity of the ſea till the firſt rains of autumn have revived vegetation, which drought had relaxed or ſuſpended.

The Simoïs takes its ſource to the ſouth-weſt of Cotylus: it flows nearly to the weſt, traverſes a ſpace of from twelve to fifteen leagues, receives the Andrius above Ine'keui, and ſeveral other rivulets, and diſcharges itſelf into the Hellespont, half a league to the north north-eaſt of Cape Sigeum. That ſtream is not ſufficiently conſiderable to deſerve the name of river; it is rather a torrent ſwelled by the rains, at the end of the autumn, in winter, and in the ſpring, or by the ſudden melting of the ſnow which falls ſometimes in Nivôſe and in Pluviôſe, on Mount Ida and Cotylus.

Its bed is tolerably wide; but its waters are ſeldom abundant, and in ſummer it is almoſt dry, ſince a pacha has turned aſide the ſtream of the SCAMANDER, and poured its waters into the ÆGEAN SEA.

The SCAMANDER takes its riſe at the extremity of the plain of TROY, from five or ſix ſprings, one of which is remarkable for its waters ſomewhat lukewarm. After having traverſed a ſpace of ſix or ſeven miles, it diſcharges itſelf into the SIMOÏS, a league from the ſea. Confined in its bed, it experiences no perceptible variation; its banks are enamelled with flowers in almoſt all ſeaſons; and, in ſeveral places, the lands are ſo low, and the waters fill its bed in ſuch a manner, that they ſpread themſelves, and form ſeveral marſhes, producing reeds, ruſhes, and various aquatic plants. In the rainy ſeaſon, the SCAMANDER is leſs conſiderable than the SIMOÏS; but it has over it the advantage of always having nearly the ſame quantity of water, and of carrying fertility into the plain that it traverſes.

We here preſerve to the SIMOÏS its name as far as the ſea, though almoſt all the ancients ceaſed to give it that name on its junction with the SCAMANDER; but, independently of the SIMOÏS having a larger bed, and a ſtream more extenſive than the other; independently of its receiving in winter the waters of all the mountains ſituated to the eaſt of TROAS, the SCAMANDER at this day has taken another courſe. Under the reign of ABDUL-HAMID, HASSAN, captain-pacha, wiſhing to conſtruct ſeveral mills, and to water the lands which he poſſeſſed towards the Cape of TROY, cauſed a canal to be dug to the weſtward of the little village of ERKESSI-KEUI, and poured into it the waters of the SCAMANDER: from that time they have flowed into the ÆGEAN SEA, nearly half a league to the ſouth of the Cape of TROY.

The coaſt is low and marſhy at the new mouth of the SCAMANDER: it riſes imperceptibly from the Cape of TROY to the village of YENI-KEUI; and thence to Cape SIGEUM it is ſteep. You walk over an elevated lawn, whence the eye meaſures without obſtacle the whole extent of the plain: you perceive at the extremity the riſing ground on which ſtood ancient TROY: beyond, Mount IDA preſents itſelf in the form of an amphitheatre, and compoſes a picture of the greateſt beauty. To the north is ſeen the HELLESPONT and the Cherſoneſus of THRACE; to the weſt, the ÆGEAN SEA, and ſome of its iſlands. TENEDOS is to be remarked from its pyramidal mountain, its riſing grounds, and its plains covered with vine-plots. The little iſland, called *RABBIT ISLAND*, has never fixed the attention of geographers and hiſtorians. You diſtinguiſh imperfectly the volcanic Iſland of LEMNOS, in which, according to fable, VULCAN had eſtabliſhed his forges. To the north-weſt, the lofty iſlands of IMBROS and of SAMOTHRACE appeared to form but one, or even to be confounded with the continent.

YENITCHER-KEUI*, built on the ruins of SIGEUM, ſtill preſents a few veſtiges of the ancient town. The curious go thither to admire a block of marble eight or nine feet long, placed by the ſide of the door of a church: it bears a Greek inſcription, almoſt entirely effaced, the words of which follow each other without interruption, that is, that the firſt line runs, as among us, from left to right, and the ſecond runs back from right to left, and ſo on to the end.

On the other ſide of the door is ſeen a bas relief in marble, tolerably well wrought: it repreſents a woman ſeated, to whom other women appear to

* YENITCHER-KEUI, village of the janizaries: it is at this day called DJAOUR-KEUI, village of the infidels, ſince it is no longer occupied but by Greeks.

offer

offer children in ſwaddling-clothes: behind theſe is ſeen another woman, holding a box in one hand, and a vaſe in the other. M. DE CHOISEUL, ambaſſador at CONSTANTINOPLE, wiſhing to have theſe two pieces of marble carried off, applied to the PORTE, and obtained permiſſion for that purpoſe; but not having been able to remove the obſtacles thrown in his way by the inhabitants, he contented himſelf with cauſing impreſſions to be taken of the latter.

To the north of the village, are ten or twelve windmills, which ſerve as a land-mark to mariners: half a league to the ſouth, they alſo remark the tomb of ANTILOCHUS, ſituated on the elevated lawn of which I have already ſpoken. ANTILOCHUS, ſon of the wiſe NESTOR, periſhed at the ſiege of TROY, in wiſhing to parry the blow that MEMNON was ſtriking at his father. A league more to the ſouth, you find, towards the Cape of TROY, the tomb of PENELEUS, one of the chiefs of the Thebans*; that of ÆSIETES is a league from the ſea, to the eaſt of the new mouth of the SCAMANDER. It is from the elevated top of this tomb that POLITES, ſon of PRIAM, truſting to the lightneſs of his heels, came to obſerve the movements of the Greeks, and watch the moment when they ſhould advance towards TROY. From this tomb to the city is not quite two leagues: thence it is about three to the ſhores of the HELLESPONT, where the Greeks were encamped.

Wiſhing to aſcend the SCAMANDER to its very ſources, we got entangled ſeveral times in marſhes, whence we had ſome difficulty to extricate ourſelves:

* Nothing proves that it is the tomb of PENELEUS. This opinion, hazarded by CHANDLER, has been adopted by LECHEVALIER. PENELEUS, according to ſome others, was killed by EURIPELES, grandſon of PRIAM, who had brought ſaccour to TROY in the tenth year of the ſiege, but it appears that his death was poſterior to that of ACHILLES, for no mention is made of it in HOMER.

we were obliged to recede from the river, and take the road that leads to BOUNAR-BACHI. We had a quarter of a league to the right, the little village of BOSKEUI. When we were at the extremity of the plain, we saw the first source of the SCAMANDER issue below the road; the ERINEOS, or the hill of wild fig-trees, was on the other side: we thought, at first sight, that we perceived remains of an ancient piece of masonry, which extended over the hill, but we soon got the better of our mistake; what we had at first taken for masonry, was nothing more than the rock itself, formed of a sort of calcareous assemblage of flints, united by a stony cement, reddish, and very substantial.

On following the road, we saw several other springs, more or less copious. We more particularly sought for that spoken of by HOMER, whose waters are hot and smoking in winter: it is the nearest to the village: it has preserved a basin formed by some blocks of granite and marble: we plunged our hands into it in Floréal, year VI, when, returning from FRANCE with Citizens FERREGEAU, PAMPELONE, and other Frenchmen, we wished to visit once more this interesting country. The waters appeared to us only a little luke-warm; but, in winter, we had found them such as HOMER describes them. They are very limpid, have scarcely any flavour, and form no apparent sediment. After having watered some gardens, and traversed a miry soil, where grow willows, elms, rushes, and reeds, all these springs unite in one common bed, the breadth of which is twelve, fifteen, or twenty feet by two or three in depth. This is the famous SCAMANDER of which I have already made mention.

BOUNAR-BACHI is situated to the north-east of the luke-warm spring, on a ground gently sloping: the population of this village does not amount to two hundred souls, notwithstanding the fertility of its soil, the abundance of its pastures, and its advantageous position. We hastened to ascend the hill

hill where, it is to be prefumed, according to HOMER, that ancient TROY was built: we had already reached two tombs, fituated on a ftony foil, at the extremity of the rifing ground, without difcovering as yet any trace of an ancient city: we advanced on an elevated fpot, almoft perpendicular, at the foot of which meanders the SIMOÏS. We had, before us, at a little diftance, the firft chains of Mount IDA; we beheld at our feet the SIMOÏS, flowing between calcareous hills, in a narrow fertile valley: to the north, we perceived the HELLESPONT as far as Cape SIGEUM: to the weft, we difcovered all the plain; we followed the courfe of the two rivers; we diftinguifhed the tombs of ÆSIETES and ANTILOCHUS; we were, in a word, on the ground of the citadel and of PRIAM's palace, and we ftill looking for the fite of TROY. After an exact fearch, we difcovered a few almoft imperceptible fragments of potter's-ware, and fome remains of mafonry; yet it muft be confeffed that, but for the Iliad, one would not fufpect that this is the place where exifted that famous city, which for ten years fuftained the united efforts of all the fovereigns of GREECE.

Citizen LECHEVALIER thinks, that it occupies all the fpace comprifed between BOUNAR-BACHI and the precipice, at the foot of which the SIMOÏS fhapes its meandring courfe: he places the citadel on the edge of this precipice, and the Scean, or weft gates, at the village itfelf: he defignates the uncultivated hill that lies to the fouth-weft, on which are ftill feen the wild fig-tree and almond-tree, as well as the ERINEOS or hill of fig-trees, and his proofs are inconteftable, if the SCAMANDER had its fources at the foot of the town, if TROY were built on the SIMOÏS, if, from its pofition, as much as from the valour of its warriors, it may have been able to refift for ten years a formidable army.

Half a league to the fouth is feen a mountain covered with wood, which the Turks call *CARA-DAAG:* beyond this mountain ftands INE'KEUI, a fmall village

village built on a rivulet, which is thought to be the ANDRIUS of the ancients: a league farther on, is ſeen *ESKI-SKUPTCHU*, which Citizen LECHEVALIER ſuppoſes to be the ancient *SCEPSIS*. The opinion of this learned man appears to us to be well founded; for, independently of there being no great difference between the Turkiſh word *SKUPTCHU* and the Greek word *SKEPSIS*, STRABO ſays poſitively that the firſt SCEPSIS was near the higheſt part of Mount IDA, which muſt make us ſuppoſe it more to the eaſt; but he adds that another town of SCEPSIS was afterwards built forty ſtada from the former, which agrees perfectly with the preſent poſition of SKUPTCHU.

This town was the country of DEMETRIUS, the grammarian, and of ſeveral illuſtrious men. It had many libraries and was famous for its excellent paſtures. ARTAXERXES, king of PERSIA, made, as is well known, a preſent to THEMISTOCLES, of PERCOTE and SCEPSIS, for his wardrobe, as he gave him LAMPSACUS for his wines, MAGNESIA on the MŒANDER for his bread, and MYONTE for his meat.

After having croſſed the *ANDRIUS* you get into a valley of the greateſt fertility, in the middle of which the SIMOÏS rolls its waters. This valley is four or five leagues in length, by a league or a league and a half in breadth. The village of BAIRAMITCHE', almoſt entirely peopled by Turks, is ſituated at the eaſtern extremity of this beautiful plain.

COTYLUS, which lies three leagues beyond the village, is the moſt lofty mountain of all thoſe which are to the eaſt of TROAS. Its height, above the level of the waters of the ſea, is nearly ſeven hundred and ſeventy-five toiſes.

According

According to the number of the villages prefented by the map of this country, one of the beft fituated, the moft beautiful, and the moft fertile o the EAST, the reader would be inclined to believe, no doubt, that it is extremely populous; but if he confider that not any one of the villages contains more than three hundred inhabitants*, that the greater part of them have not two hundred, and that fome are not equal to the meaneft of our hamlets, he will not be furprifed if I do not eftimate beyond feven or eight thoufand all the inhabitants comprifed in that place: I except not even from this calculation the firft caftle of ASIA, which alone contains near one-third of that population. The inhabitants of TROAS are far from induftrious; they content themfelves with gathering for their wants, wheat, barley, cotton, and fefamum; with rearing a few flocks, and with going on the neighbouring mountains to gather the galnut and the *velanida* ufed in trade.

The oak which furnifhes this galnut (*PLATE XIV.* and *PLATE XV.*) is not at all known to botanifts. It is fcattered throughout all ASIA MINOR, from the BOSPHORUS as far as SYRIA †, from the coafts of the ARCHIPELAGO as far as the frontiers of PERSIA. It bears a crooked ftem; it feldom reaches the height of fix feet, and more frequently prefents itfelf under the form of a fhrub, than under that of a little tree.

Its leaves are fmooth, of a bright green, both above and below, borne on a petiole rather fhort: they are toothed, and each tooth is terminated by a point by no means fharp. They fall every year at the end of the autumn. The acorn is elongated, fmooth, two or three times longer than

* We muft thence except *Baaiamitché*, which has near fix hundred.

† Citizen LA BILLARDIE'RE, member of the inftitute, found it on Mount *Caffius* in *Syria*

 the

the cup; the latter is ſeſſile, in a ſlight degree downy, and furniſhed with ſcales not very apparent *.

The galnut *(fig. a.)* is hard, ligneous, and heavy: it comes at the ſhoots of the young boughs, and acquires from four to twelve lines in diameter. It is generally round and covered with tuberoſities, ſome of which are pointed.

This galnut is much more eſteemed when it is gathered before its maturity, that is, before the iſſuing of the inſect by which it is produced. The galls which are pierced or thoſe from which the inſect has eſcaped, are of a brighter colour: they are not ſo heavy nor ſo proper as the others for dyeing.

The Orientals take care to gather the galls at the preciſe time that experience has proved to be the moſt favourable to them: it is that in which this excreſcence has acquired its full ſize and its full weight. Were they to delay gathering it, the larva which lives in the inſide would there undergo its metamorphoſis, would pierce it, and appear under the form of a little winged inſect. The gall-nut thenceforth no longer deriving from the tree the juices neceſſary for the growth of the inſect, would dry up, and loſe part of the qualities which render it fit for dyeing.

The agas take care that, towards the middle of Meſſidor, the cultivators viſit the hills and mountains that are covered with oaks. It is their intereſt that the galls ſhould be of a good quality, becauſe they levy a duty on them. The firſt galls picked up are laid apart: they are known in the East under the name of *yerli*, and diſtinguiſhed in trade by the terms of *black galls*

* Quercus infectoria *foliis ovato-oblongis; ſinuato-dentatis, glaberrimis, decidius; fructibus ſeſſilibus, longiſſimis.*

and

and *green galls*. Thoſe which have eſcaped the firſt ſearches, and which are gathered a little later, called *white galls*, are of a very inferior quality.

The galls of the environs of MOSSOUL and of TOCAT, and in general thoſe which come from the eaſtern part of TURKEY, are leſs eſteemed than thoſe of the environs of ALEPPO, SMYRNA, MAGNESIA, KARAHISSAR, DIARBEKIR, and of all the interior of NATOLIA. The former are ſold at SMYRNA and at ALEPPO, two or three piaſtres leſs per quintal than the others.

The inhabitants almoſt every where neglect to pick up the acorns; they ſerve as food for the wild boars and goats: the latter contribute greatly to render the oak ſmall and ſtunted, by devouring, with its fruit, a part of its foliage and of its young boughs.

The diplolepis which produces theſe galls (*fig. c. c.*) has a body of a fawn colour, with the antennæ dark, and the upper part of the abdomen of a ſhining brown. It is ſometimes found under its latter form in the inſide of the galls which are not yet pierced*.

On the ſame oak are ſeen a great number of other galls which the inhabitants neglect to gather, becauſe they are not fit for dyeing. That which we have drawn is remarkable from its ſize. It is ſpongy, very light, of a brown red, covered with a reſinous coat, and furniſhed with a circular row of tubercles placed nearly towards the moſt inflated part. It differs, as is ſeen, from that of the *tauſin* oak, and the inſect which produces it differs from it alſo. This is a diplolepis whoſe body is of a brown and fawn colour mixed. The antennæ and the feet are blackiſh †.

* *Diplolepis gallæ tinctoriæ.* Encyclop. inſect. vol. vi. page 281.

† DIPLOLEPIS gallæ reſinoſæ, *brunneo teſtaceoque varius, antennis pedibuſque fuſcis,*

The modern Greeks name *velani**, and botanists *quercus Ægilops*†, the oak which furnishes the *velanida*‡. It grows on the western coast of NATOLIA, in the islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in those of CORFU and of CEPHALONIA, and throughout all GREECE. It does not rise to the height of our TURKEY oak; its wood is not so esteemed, and is scarcely employed but in cabinet-work. Its leaves are of a bright green; they are a little tomentose on their under side; their form is an oblong oval with sharp teeth on their edges, terminated in a setaceous point. The acorn is big, short, and a little hollow at its top. The cup is sessile, very broad, and closely beset with long oblong scales (*PLATE XIII.*)

It is this cup which the Orientals, the Italians, and the English employ as well as the gall-nut, in dyeing. The French merchants have them sent sometimes to MARSEILLES, only for the purpose of forwarding them to GENOA and LEGHORN. Our dyers have hitherto neglected to make use of this substance.

TROAS affords few vines, though the rising grounds and hills are very fit for that culture; but the inhabitants are not there accustomed to make wine. The grapes are employed in making a confection, called *petmés* in

* From βαλανος, acorn.

† *Quercus orientalis castaneæ folio, glande recondita in cupula crassa et squamosa.* TOURNEFORT, coroll. 40. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. page 334.
POCOCKE's Travels, vol. ii. tab. 86.
Chêne à grosses cupules. LAMARK, Encyclop. Botanique, vol. i. page 719.—*Ang.* The great prickly-cupped oak tree.

‡ "Native of the LEVANT, whence the acorns are annually brought to EUROPE for "dyeing; they are called *velani*, and the tree *velanida*, by the Greeks." Thus says MARTYN (in his new edition of MILLER's Gardener's and Botanist's Dictionary, article *quercus*); but, highly as we respect his authority, we prefer following our Author, whose information must, unquestionably, have been derived from the natives themselves.—*Translator.*

Turkish,

Turkiſh, of which the Orientals make a very great conſumption during the whole year: they put it into ragouts; they employ it, in lieu of ſugar and honey, in moſt of their choice diſhes; in ſhort they make of it, with ſeſamum reduced to paſte, a ſort of *nogat*, or almond-like cake, which would not be deſpiſed in EUROPE. I ſaw a great deal of it at CONSTANTINOPLE, at the DARDANELLES, and in moſt of the towns of TURKEY. The proceſs conſiſts in mixing thoſe two ſubſtances in boilers expoſed to a moderate fire, and in ſtirring it about without interruption, with a large wooden ſpatula, till the mixture be ſufficiently thickened. It is poured on large ſlabs of marble or ſheets of copper, and by its cooling, are obtained cakes which are made an inch and a half in thickneſs. This nogat is ſold retail, at five or ſix ſous a pound.

During the winter, there are on the marſhes and the rivers of TROAS, a prodigious number of ducks, herons, ſnipes, plovers, and other aquatic birds. We there ſaw a great many wild ſwans, ſcoters, and water-hens. Gulls and ſea-ſwallows keep more commonly in the channel. In Floréal, we made a tolerably good collection of plants and inſects: we were ſurpriſed at the quantity of ſnakes that we met with. As the graſs was high and tufted, we walked with ſome precaution, fearing that theſe reptiles might be venomous. It was probably the ſeaſon of their loves, for they were almoſt always two by two. Notwithſtanding their ſize, their hiſſing, and their ſparkling eyes, they were not of the race of thoſe of which fable reminds us. Theſe fled at our approach, and appeared by no means diſpoſed to dart at us, and make us undergo the fate of LAOCOON and his ſons.

CHAPTER IV.

An account of Alexandria-Troas *and its environs.—Arrival at* Tenedos.—*Description of that island.—Its productions.—Manners of its inhabitants.*

If the city of Troy no longer affords traces of its existence; if the palace of Priam, the citadel, the temples, and the walls of the city have been destroyed to its very foundations; if the ruins of a considerable city have been able to disappear totally, that which, several ages after, was intended to supply its place, although destroyed itself, still presents at this day the marks of its ancient splendour. An opinion may be formed of its extent from its walls, and of its magnificence from the remains of its monuments: the prodigious quantity of fragments of pillars, capitals, and cornices, that are seen scattered about, attest the luxury and riches of its inhabitants.

Six leagues to the south of Cape Sigeum, are found the ruins of the city which Alexander ordered to be erected in memory of that of Troy, which had long ceased to exist. Antigonus, one of his lieutenants, to whose lot Asia Minor fell after his death, laid the foundations of it, at the same time that he rebuilt Smyrna, and brought back thither the inhabitants dispersed by the Lydians. Antigonus gave his name to the city which he founded; but Lysimachus, who possessed it afterwards, restored to it the name of the conqueror who had first drawn the plan of it. He embellished it, and gave it greater extent. Having passed under the domination of the Romans, it became, under Augustus, one of the handsomest cities of the East. Under Adrian, Herodes Atticus, governor

of

of the free towns of ASIA, conſtructed a ſuperb aqueduct, a few traces of which are ſtill to be ſeen. It is probable that it was a part of the waters of the SCAMANDER which he had brought thither; for no others exiſt in the environs, which are ſufficiently abundant to ſupply the wants of a great city.

I ſhall not undertake to deſcribe the remains of the monuments that ALEXANDRIA-TROAS preſents at the preſent day: on this ſubject, the reader may conſult the travellers who have preceded me, ſuch as POCOCKE, WHEELER, CHANDLER, LECHEVALIER, and others.

The walls of the city, thoſe of the houſes, of the temples, and of the other monuments, were built of a rather hard ſhelly ſtone. The marble of PAROS and that of MARMORA are there pretty common, as well as various ſorts of granite. Near the harbour are ſtill to be ſeen two large marble pillars which the TURKS wiſhed to ſhip there: they are the remains of thoſe which the ſultans have ſucceſſively carried off in order to conſtruct the greater part of the moſques of CONSTANTINOPLE; one of them was broken in the conveyance.

To the ſouth of the city is a ſmall rivulet of little importance, and to the ſouth-eaſt, near this rivulet, two ſprings of warm mineral waters, of which the Turks and the Greeks make uſe without knowing their nature and almoſt always without ſucceſs. They are ſeen to come in crowds, in the ſpring, from TENEDOS and from TROAS, in order to be purged and to bathe, the one with a view of preventing future complaints; the other, in order to cure ſome ſerious diſorder, or to obtain only ſome relief in their infirmities. Theſe waters are more particularly recommended for diſorders of the ſkin, the leproſy, and *ſyphilis*.

The

The harbour has very little extent; it is almoſt choked up; and its entrance is obſtructed by the ſands which the ſtream of the waters of the HELLESPONT and the movement of the waves of the ſea inſenſibly bring on the coaſt of TROAS. This harbour would not at this day ſuffice for the maritime commerce of a town at all conſiderable, ſituated in ſuch a manner as to ſerve as a ſtaple for the neighbouring countries; but at a time when this commerce was limited, when merchant-veſſels were ſcarcely as capacious as our large boats, when they were inceſſantly in activity in a climate where navigation is never ſuſpended nor relaxed, it may be conceived that a ſmall number of veſſels might ſuffice for the exportation of the ſurplus of a country-town, and bring back from the neighbouring countries all the commodities that the wants or the luxury of its inhabitants demanded.

This harbour formed a ſort of ſemi-circular baſin, ſeparated from the ſea by a jetty: it is ſheltered from the north and north-weſt winds by Cape TOUZELIK and by a range of rocks ſituated beſide its entrance.

Hiſtory makes no mention of the epoch in which this city was deſtroyed: it already no longer exiſted when the Turks came to eſtabliſh themſelves in this country; for, according to LEUNCLAVIUS, before SOLIMAN, ſon of ORKHAN, went into the Cherſoneſus of THRACE and came to beſiege GALLIPOLI, he walked for a long time over the ſite of TROY, contemplating with admiration the walls partly crumbled away of that great city, the ruins of its immenſe edifices, and that prodigious quantity of marbles and granites which were there heaped up.

The environs of ALEXANDRIA-TROAS preſent a fertile ſoil, forming a plain, on which the *velani* oak grows in abundance, and without culture.

This

This plain is ſeparated from that of TROY by a few hills more or leſs elevated. A mountain which makes a continuation of thoſe of IDA, preſents itſelf two or three leagues to the eaſt, and extends towards the ſouth: thence to Cape *BABA*, the ground appears uneven, more or leſs fertile, towards the ſea; mountainous and wooded up the country. But before we direct our route to the ſouth, let us croſs to TENEDOS, and caſt an eye on what it affords moſt curious and moſt intereſting.

On the 16th of Pluvioſe (4th of February) we left ALEXANDER'S TROY in a ticklish caïque which we had ſent for from the firſt caſtle of ASIA; and as the weather was very fine and the temperature of the air very mild, we were extremely glad to follow the coaſt as far as *KOUM-BOURNO* or *Sandy Cape*, and to land from time to time. We found nothing remarkable throughout all this ſpace: we looked in vain for ſome veſtiges of ancient cities, ſome traces of *LARISSA*, which geographers place towards that cape: nothing offered itſelf to our eyes. The coaſt is low and ſandy; the plain is fertile, almoſt uncultivated, and croſſed by a rivulet called *SUDLU-SOU*, ſwelled ſometimes in winter by the rain-waters: this rivulet grows wider at its mouth, and there forms a few marſhes. I am ignorant of the name that it bore in antiquity. We ſet out in the afternoon from the pitch of the cape, and, by rowing, we arrived early at the harbour of TENEDOS.

The diſtance from that iſland to the neareſt coaſt is no more than a league and a half*: it is reckoned about five from the town to the entrance of the HELLESPONT. The harbour is ſmall, and can receive only merchant-veſſels: it is formed by a jetty even with the water's edge, and a tongue of land on which is conſtructed the citadel that defends the entrance, and

* STRABO fixes the diſtance from TENEDOS, to the neareſt coaſt, at eleven ſtada, or one thouſand three hundred and ſeventy-five paces. We think it nearly three thouſand toiſes.

can at moſt ſecure it againſt being ſurpriſed by a privateer. The town is built in the form of a ſemi circle, in a valley, and on the declivity of two hills: its population is from five to ſix thouſand ſouls, to judge of it from its extent, and from the number of perſons who pay the karatch.

At TENEDOS are reckoned as many Turks as Greeks, almoſt all occupied in the culture of the lands: few among them are mariners. The greater part of the former are attached to the duty of the citadel.

There is a waiwode or governor, an aga commandant of the citadel, under the orders of the waiwode, and a cadi or judge. The janizaries of the town, to the number of two or three hundred, are obliged to defend the place in caſe of attack, and to perform a daily duty, from which they have long ſince exempted themſelves. In the citadel are ſtill ſeen a few Venetian guns without carriages, which ſeem to be there only for the purpoſe of recalling to mind that this iſland belonged to that trading nation before the arrival of the Turks in theſe countries.

This iſland, ſcantily peopled and ill defended, paſſed betimes under the Ottoman domination. During the minority of MAHOMET IV. the Venetians retook it after the complete defeat of the Turkiſh fleet in the ſtrait by Admiral MOCENIGO, in 1656; but, the following year, the admiral having been killed in a ſecond engagement, the Venetian fleet retired, and this iſland again fell into the power of the Turks, who have preſerved it without interruption till the preſent day.

The town is commanded by a pyramidal mountain of ſmall elevation, which appears to have been formed by the action of a volcano, the traces of which are diſcoverable on all the ground that extends thence to the ſea

in

in the north part. In the environs is found a granite remarkable from pieces more or leſs large of felſpar cryſtallized.

On going out of the town and directing your route towards the weſt, you leave this mountain to the right, and enter into a ſandy plain far from fertile, and almoſt entirely covered with vines. The hills, in general, are naked, dry, and little ſuſceptible of culture. Thoſe which are diſcovered to the ſouth of the town are calcareous; the rock is more or leſs chalky and loaded with ſea ſhells. We remarked few fruit-trees: neither are the ALEPPO pine and the *velani* oak here in greater plenty. We killed a few rabbits on the hills; but this kind of game is ſcarce; the red partridge and the hare are met with more frequently. As for the woodcock and the quail, they prefer, as we were informed, reſting themſelves, during their paſſage, on TROAS or in the other iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

TENEDOS produces little corn, little fruit, and little herbage; very little cotton and ſeſamum are there gathered. The vine is the only article of wealth of this country, and its culture the principal occupation of the inhabitants: it delights in the light, ſandy, and deep lands of the plain; it thrives extremely well too towards the foot of the hills, and in all the places ſuſceptible of culture. The vines are planted at an equal diſtance from each other, and more or leſs ſpace is left between them, according to the goodneſs of the ſoil. Two dreſſings are regularly given, the one in winter, the other in ſpring: the vine is trimmed before the end of the winter, as in our ſouthern departments, and the vintage begins in the firſt days of Fructidor: but at that period the grape is already ſo ripe, ſo ſweet, and ſo ſaccharine, that fermentation would take place too ſlowly, were not a certain quantity of water added. The inhabitants are accuſtomed to put in a fourth part at the moment when the grape is received into the vat. With this method, vicious as it is, they obtain a ſpirituous wine of a tolerably

good quality. We drank ſome at the houſes of a few rich private perſons, which we ſhould have taken for excellent BOURDEAUX wine, if we had not been appriſed: true it is that it was made with more care than that intended for trade, and that it had received but a ſixth part of water: beſides, it was old and kept in bottle. We alſo drank, at a Greek biſhop's, ſome excellent muſcadel wine red and white, which was by no means inferior to the beſt Frontignac. No water is put to the latter: the grape is ſtoned; it is preſſed, and ſqueezed as expeditiouſly as poſſible, and it is left to ferment without the lees for ſome time. About the middle of the winter, it is put into caſks or jars: it is then poured off a ſecond time, and kept in earthen pots, varniſhed, which are carefully corked.

The manner of making muſcadel wine inclines us to think that it is rather with a view of obtaining a greater quantity of wine, than with that of haſtening and promoting fermentation, that water is added to the expreſſed juice of the grape. Avidity induces the greater part of the inhabitants to exceed the proportions; they ſometimes add too great a quantity of water; which cauſes their wine to turn ſour before they have found an opportunity of ſelling it.

This liquor pays to the imperial treaſury at the rate of two parats the oke, which duty is levied on the vender. The farmer of this tax proceeds, immediately after the vintage, to the houſes and ſtore-houſes of private perſons, in order to make an eſtimate of the wine that they have, and fix the quantity which they are to drink, and which they may ſell. He cauſes himſelf to be paid in proportion to the ſale, according to the eſtimate that has been made, and ſometimes he takes the liberty of requiring it in advance, being almoſt always certain in this matter of being ſupported by a waiwode and a cadi as unjuſt as himſelf.

There

There are annually exported from TENEDOS upwards of ſix hundred thouſand okes of wine, which produce to the farmer more than 30,000 piaſtres. This wine paſſes to CONSTANTINOPLE, to SMYRNA, and into RUSSIA. It is preferred to the wine of *RODOSTO* and to that of the Iſland of *THASSOS*, ſituated near the continent, to the north-weſt of TENEDOS. There is alſo exported a ſmall quantity of brandy, which pays four parats per oke duty.

Although the Turks poſſeſs vineyards, yet they do not allow themſelves to make wine: they are equally prohibited from it by the law of the State and the religion of the Prophet. They ſell their grapes to Greek traders, after having taken out what they wiſh to keep for their winter-ſtock, and put apart what they intend to make into confection.

The climate of TENEDOS is ſtill more temperate than that of the DARDANELLES: the cold is never ſharply felt there; it ſeldom freezes, and the ſummer heats are tempered by the north north-eaſt wind, which blows regularly during the day. The houſes have terraces or flat roofs inſtead of ridged ones; and although the greater part of them are conſtructed with maſonry, there is not to be remarked in them the elegance and ſolidity of thoſe of SCIO and of the iſlands at all conſiderable of the ARCHIPELAGO, which have belonged to the Genoeſe and the Venetians.

At TENEDOS, the Greeks have not that gaiety which they are ſeen to poſſeſs in the other iſlands: ſilent and melancholy in the ſtreets, they ſcarcely dare take a little recreation in their own houſes: they avoid noiſy pleaſures which would infallibly draw on them the attention of the Turks, and awaken all their cupidity; but when they can without danger, they give themſelves up to a ſort of extravagant joy and delirium. The coaſt of

TROY is frequently the theatre of their orgies or the field of their pleasures: thither they repair on the occasion of a wedding or of a festival, and there, under the plane-tree or the oak, they pass the whole day in dancing, singing, eating, and drinking.

The Greek, under whose roof we lodged, thought, in his capacity of agent of the Republic, that he might, before our departure, give at his house an entertainment, to which he invited the principal inhabitants of the town. A great number of women of all ages also came thither. Wine was not spared: the musicians were numerous: the dancing, at first grave, slow, and in measure, was afterwards so quick, and so tumultuous among the men, that the floor partly gave way; but as no one was hurt, it continued not the less, on that account, in another room, and was prolonged to a late hour of the night. Bacchanalian songs succeeded amorous ditties, and singing gave place to bawling when the party had emptied a great number of flasks.

However, the women though gay, departed not from their usual reserve: there reigned among them the greatest decorum: their dancing was always grave; their songs continued to be soft and agreeable: they mixed not with the men, and neither participated in their ebriety nor in their delirium. Almost all the young ones were handsome: some among them struck us by their beauty; they might well be compared, from their features and their shape, to the most beautiful models that antiquity has transmitted to us.

We should have been glad to direct our steps to the Islands of LEMNOS, IMBROS, and SAMOTHRACE; we could have wished to examine, in the first, the traces of the volcano of which history and fable seem to make mention, to see its vast harbours, and the productions of its fertile territory. The other two, which we had perceived for a long time past, excited our curiosity

from

from their elevation, from the woods by which they are covered, and from what was related to us of the Greek tribes by which they are inhabited. But finding no veſſel in the harbour of TENEDOS for thoſe iſlands, and not caring, in the middle of winter, to truſt ourſelves in a caïque, we determined to take advantage of a large decked boat that was ſetting ſail for MITYLENE.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER V.

Arrival at Lesbos.—*Description of that island.—Its population and its commerce.*

We sailed from Tenedos on the 24th of Pluviôse (12th of February) at eight o'clock in the morning, with a light breeze from the north. We ranged along the coast of Asia, and found ourselves at noon off Cape *Baba*, formerly the promontory *Lectos*. Our skipper would have allowed us to land at the town situated to the east of the cape, had he not been afraid of not arriving before night at Port *Petra*. He consented, however, to follow for some time longer the coast which we wished to examine.

The town, situated by the sea-side, on a sloping ground, has a small harbour for boats: ships and vessels thwarted by the north wind, sometimes anchor two or three cables' length from the harbour till the wind changes. On that day were lying here two vessels, the one a Venetian, the other a Ragusan, which, under shelter of the cape, had been waiting for upwards of a fortnight, the return of the southerly wind in order to enter the Hellespont, and proceed to Constantinople.

Baba appeared to us a very small town: it is very famous in Turkey, for the knife and sword blades which are there manufactured for the use of the Orientals. We were told that it was peopled by as many Turks as Greeks; its soil is tolerably good, and furnishes the same productions as that of Troas.

The

The coaſt, from the cape to the place where we quitted it, for a ſpace of two or three leagues, appeared to us volcanic: it is lofty, ſteep, and reddiſh. The interior of the country is mountainous and wooded. On receding from the coaſt, we perceived cultivated ſpots and flocks, which ſtill announce ſome inhabitants on the ruins of *Assos*, or in the environs of that town.

As the ſun was going down, we haſtened to arrive at Port PETRA, in which we caſt anchor before dark. This harbour, or to ſpeak more correctly, this road, is ſituated to the north of LESBOS. It is open to the north-weſt; which raiſed a ſwell on the water: ſhips, however, anchor there in ſafety with all winds, becauſe the waves are ſtopped by ſome rocks that lie at the entrance, and becauſe the coaſt of ASIA, the diſtance of which is only two or three leagues, does not admit of the ſea being very rough in this channel with winds from the north and north-weſt.

There were on board two janizaries to whom we had been recommended by a rich Turk belonging to TENEDOS. Impatient to arrive at MITYLENE, and apprehenſive of being delayed if they continued their route by ſea, they landed at PETRA, in the intention of croſſing the iſland. I immediately ſeized this opportunity and propoſed to accompany them. I took with me a ſervant: Citizen BRUGUIÈRE remained on board with another, in order to have an eye to our baggage, which we could not intruſt to Greek ſervants whoſe probity appeared to us ſuſpicious, nor to mariners of that nation with whom we were not acquainted.

The village of PETRA, thus named on account of a large inſulated rock of granite which lies in the middle, is ſituated in a plain towards the ſea-ſhore: here are but two or three hundred inhabitants Turks and Greeks, almoſt all cultivators. It is ſurrounded by volcanic mountains, and it has

 a ſmall

a ſmall plain which joins to that of *Molivo*. The Greek women of this village wear a head-dreſs extremely high, ſimilar in ſome degree to a mitre.

As we found no horſes at Petra, the janizaries propoſed to me to go and ſleep at Molivo, diſtant nearly a league. This village is to the eaſt of Petra, on a riſing ground at no great diſtance from the ſea: it is built on rocks of baſaltes, preciſely in the ſpot formerly occupied by Methymna. It is commanded by a caſtle almoſt in ruins, conſtructed by the Genoeſe: here are ſtill to be ſeen ſcattered about a few diſmounted or broken cannons.

The population of Molivo may be eſtimated at two or three thouſand inhabitants, as well Turks as Greeks. Its territory is formed of a plain by no means extenſive, very fertile, and ſurrounded by volcanic mountains. Its productions conſiſt principally in oil, corn, and barley. It furniſhes a little wine and various fruits. Cotton and ſeveral kitchen-garden plants are here likewiſe gathered.

Molivo poſſeſſes, as formerly, diſtinguiſhed muſicians. In order to diſpel the *ennui* of the janizaries, while we were waiting for ſupper, there was brought to us a young Greek named *Petraki Tangros*, who was juſtly reckoned the moſt able ſinger and the greateſt muſician of Lesbos. This young man, whom a careful education would have rendered ſtill more eſtimable, poſſeſſed a comely perſon, an agreeable voice, a quick underſtanding, and a ſprightly diſpoſition. He had ſeveral times exerciſed his talents as a poet and muſician at the capital of the iſland, and was to repair in a few days to Smyrna, whence a virtuoſo, whoſe pupil and relation he was, had juſt ſent for him. I fancied I beheld in him a deſcendant of Arion, that famous lyric poet to whom Methymna had given birth within its walls; or of that Therpander who improved the lyre, and ſucceeded in quelling a ſedition by the melody of his ſinging.

We lodged at the houſe of a Muſſulman who, for a ſlight retribution, was in the habit of ſhewing hoſpitality to thoſe of his religion whom chance or buſineſs brought to MOLIVO. He preſented us for our ſupper a pilau and ſome olives: a bad ſopha ſerved as a bed for us all: my clothes I put over me in lieu of a coverlid, becauſe that which was offered me, appeared to me too much worn and too dirty.

Our boat ſet ſail the next day, at the ſame time that our landlord brought us mules, which had a tolerably good appearance, and with which we had reaſon to be ſatisfied. Notwithſtanding the intereſt and the efforts of my two fellow-travellers, I was not able to procure a ſaddle. I was under the neceſſity of contenting myſelf with a ſort of pack-ſaddle, on which a carpet was ſpread. True it is that the people of the country travel in no other manner: there are none but the agas who have ſaddles, which they take good care not to lend, eſpecially to *infidels*. We returned and paſſed through PETRA; we croſſed ſeveral mountains entirely volcanic, and, after a forced march of ſix hours, arrived at a little village ſituated in the plain which lies at the head of Port *CALONI*. This plain is two leagues in extent: its principal culture conſiſts in corn, cotton, and olive-trees: figs, muſk and water melons, pumpkins, and various legumes, are alſo here gathered. Here are ſeen ſeveral villages; but population is not in proportion to the fertility and the extent of the ſoil fit to be put into a ſtate of culture. The air is ſo unwholeſome in this quarter, that, in certain years, a great number of people die. I was aſſured that here were villages where none but lepers were to be found; in others, the face of all the inhabitants ſufficiently indicates that they are expoſed to intermittent fevers, and remittent putrid ones, and to all the diſorders which originate in the environs of marſhes. There are no other than poor Greek cultivators in all theſe unhealthful villages: the Turks, proprietors of lands, prefer a reſidence at MITYLENE, MOLIVO, and the other places the beſt ſituated in the iſland.

Port *Caloni* lies in the middle of the ſouthern part of Lesbos: it is very extenſive, very ſafe, yet little frequented. There are none but veſſels thwarted by the wind, or buffeted by a ſtorm, which go and anchor there: not one enters it to take in a cargo, or unload that which ſhe has on board.

Our dinner was ſoon over: we had not alighted from our mules an hour when we remounted them. We proceeded for three hours acroſs other volcanic mountains, after which we arrived in another plain ſituated at the head of Port *Vero* or Port *Olivier*, thus named on account of the great number of olive-trees which are planted in the plain and on the declivity of the mountains and hills that ſurround it. In the eaſtern part of the harbour, there are a few calcareous hills which have not been attacked by the fire of volcanoes. Here is found, near the ſea, a ſpring of hot mineral water, rather copious, on which the inhabitants of Mitylene ſet a very high value.

Theſe waters are reckoned aperitive in the country. People go and drink them, and bathe in them, in the intention of promoting urine, and procuring themſelves ſome relief in moſt chronic diſeaſes. I was told that they operate as a ſlight purgative when they are taken in a ſomewhat large quantity. I think them nitrous, to judge of them from their virtue and the little flavour that they poſſeſs. Hussein, captain-pacha, has juſt built here a baſin capable of containing ten or twelve perſons: he has at the ſame time repaired the building which is occupied by the Turk charged to receive all thoſe who wiſh to make uſe of theſe waters.

Port Olivier, very well drawn by M. de Choiseul*, is one of the ſafeſt and moſt ſpacious harbours of the Archipelago: it is at the eaſtern

* *Voyage Pittoreſque de la Grèce*, pl. 43.

and

and ſouthern extremity of the iſland: it is ſaid to abound with fiſhes and conchylia: among others are found very good oyſters, which are carried to SCIO and SMYRNA. It is frequented, during the whole year, by boats and veſſels that come thither to load with the oil which is made in the environs.

From the mineral waters to MITYLENE, it is nearly two leagues. We croſſed a volcanic mountain, and reached the town by a very ſteep road. But, before we arrived there, we had from the top of this mountain a proſpect which we could not tire in admiring: MITYLENE and its territory preſented themſelves to us; we ſaw diſtinctly its two harbours, as well as the boats, the gallies, and the ſhips which were there at anchor; we meaſured the extent of the channel that ſeparates LESBOS from the continent; we perceived the numerous iſlands which lie along the coaſt of ASIA: farther on, the main land, its high mountains covered with wood, its vallies extremely fertile, well watered, and cultivated: all this aſſemblage preſented a picture whoſe beauty was heightened by the rays of the ſetting ſun, which were eſcaping behind us through a ſky partly covered with clouds.

Being favoured by the wind, our boat had arrived at an early hour, and anchored in the ſouth harbour. Citizen BRUGUIÈRE had cauſed our baggage to be landed, and taken a lodging in a convent of Greek monks.

The two harbours of MITYLENE are ſeparated by a tongue of land, on which was conſtructed by the Genoeſe a citadel that the Turks have preſerved. The upper or north harbour is ſecured from the north-eaſt wind by a jetty, the origin of which is carried back to ancient GREECE. The ſouth harbour is open and faces the ſouth-eaſt: it is a little leſs extenſive and leſs deep than the other: there are none but the boats of the country that can anchor in it, while the north harbour can admit ſmall merchant-veſſels. Men of war, and European ſhips which commerce attracts to MITYLENE,

anchor

anchor in ſummer off the ſouth harbour; but they ſcarcely expoſe themſelves there in winter, becauſe there happen ſometimes, in that ſeaſon, very impetuous gales from the north-eaſt, which might occaſion their deſtruction, or oblige them to cut their cables and get under ſail with all expedition.

There was formerly a canal of communication, between theſe two harbours, which ſeparated the tongue of land that I have juſt mentioned, and formed of it an iſland, on which was built part of the town. Time has choked up the canal, but it has not been able to deſtroy the jetty which ran from the little iſland, and ſheltered the north harbour from the worſt weather.

MITYLENE, ſometimes called at this day *CASTRO* or METELIN, contains two or three thouſand Greeks, three or four thouſand Turks, and thirty or forty Jewiſh families. The citadel is ſpacious, provided with cannon in tolerably good condition, and defended by five or ſix hundred janizaries, almoſt all married and ſettled. Within it are two moſques and a great number of houſes occupied by this militia. The modern town extends in a ſemi-circle along the north harbour, on a part of the ground occupied by the ancient city. The truncated pieces of pillars employed in the edifices, the remains of capitals, the fragments of marble and granite that are ſeen every where, atteſt its importance and beſpeak the rank which it formerly held. Some remains of inſcriptions which travellers have tranſmitted to us are ſtill viſible. In the court of the Greek convent where we ſlept, is a chair of white marble, on which may be read:

ΠΟΤΑΜΩΝΟΣ
ΑΕΣΒΟΝΑΚΤΟΣ
ΠΡΟΕΔΡΙΑ

Seat of POTAMON, Son of LESBONAX.

This

This POTAMON, born at MITYLENE, was a diſtinguiſhed rhetorician, who lived at ROME under the Emperor TIBERUS. Wiſhing to return to his country, and there eſtabliſh a chair of eloquence, he obtained from TIBERUS letters, in which it was expreſsly mentioned that whoever ſhould dare to inſult POTAMON, would inſult in his perſon the emperor himſelf *.

LESBOS groaned a long time under particular tyrants, and enjoyed only by intervals the charms of liberty. This iſland ſucceſſively paſſed under the domination of the Perſians, and under that of the Greeks and Romans. The cruſaders eſtabliſhed themſelves here for a moment, and the Genoeſe were maſters of it when the empire of the EAST fell into the hands of the Turks.

While the Greeks were tearing each other to pieces for religious opinions, as abſurd as incomprehenſible, while ambitious men were agitating the capital and the provinces in order to arrive more expeditiouſly at the throne, the Turks, on the one hand, were making themſelves maſters of the fineſt provinces of ASIA and threatening CONSTANTINOPLE; two nations of navigators, on the other, were eſtabliſhing themſelves by degrees in the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in moſt of the maritime towns of the BLACK SEA, on the BOSPHORUS, and even in GALATA, one of the ſuburbs of the capital. The ſeas of the LEVANT were covered with their veſſels, and the productions of the EAST no longer paſſed through any hands but theirs.

LESBOS was under the domination of the Genoeſe, when MAHOMET II. ten years after the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE, equipped a conſiderable fleet in order to make himſelf maſter of it. MITYLENE, METHYMNA, and moſt of the places of this iſland had been well fortified: the knights of

* HESYCHIUS, *de viris claris*.

RHODES

RHODES had had time to ſend ſome ſuccour to the former, and the inhabitants, who knew the cruelties which the Turks had committed at the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE, were well diſpoſed to defend their lives. The Ottoman forces, although very conſiderable, would undoubtedly have miſcarried againſt thouſands of heroes, had the prince, named *GATTILUSIO*, had the courage of his ſoldiers, and had he not given his confidence to *LUCCO GATTILUSIO* his couſin, an ambitious and imprudent man, who thought, by the promiſe which was made to him of it in writing, to obtain the ſovereignty of the iſland by delivering it up to MAHOMET.

LUCCO, after having himſelf opened to the enemy one of the gates of the town, perſuaded his weak couſin to ſign a ſhameful capitulation, under the chimerical hope of being indemnified for the ſacrifice which he was making. But as a reward for the treachery of the one, and for the weakneſs of the other, MAHOMET cauſed them to be cruelly put to death a ſhort time after: a terrible leſſon, which traitors and cowards ſhould have inceſſantly before their eyes, and by which they ſhould profit for their own advantage.

LESBOS gave birth to a few great men, among whom are to be remarked more particularly ALCÆUS, a lyric poet, who declaimed ſo long againſt tyranny: SAPPHO, that poeteſs, whom antiquity has placed among the Muſes, and who was impelled by an unfortunate paſſion to precipitate herſelf from the promontory LEUCATES; THEOPHRASTUS, a diſciple of PLATO and ARISTOTLE, whoſe eloquence was ſo perſuaſive, and whoſe philoſophy was ſo amiable; laſtly PITTACUS, whom GREECE ranks among her ſages, furniſhes an example very rare, and which cannot be too much quoted, of a man more jealous of glory than power, more occupied with the happineſs of his fellow-citizens than with his own; of a man, in ſhort, who conceived and executed the project of uſurping power, in order to reſtore liberty to his country.

I might

I might quote, in more modern times, the two BARBAROSSAS, brothers, ſons of a potter, who, from ſimple ſailors, became famous pirates, and were afterwards, in ſucceſſion, ſovereigns of ALGIERS. The younger, appointed High Admiral by SOLIMAN I. is more known than his brother in the hiſtory of the Ottoman Empire.

Although the iſland is expoſed in winter to ſudden gales of wind from the north-eaſt and the eaſt, which come from the mountains of ASIA, as well as to the north wind which reigns over the whole ARCHIPELAGO, the climate there is, nevertheleſs, tolerably fine, and the temperature of the air ſomewhat mild. It ſeldom freezes in that ſeaſon; but, in ſummer, the heat is rather powerful on the ſouth coaſt, and the air is, in general, more unwholeſome there than in the other parts of the iſland.

At LESBOS are reckoned eight thouſand Greeks paying the karatch, from the age of ſeven to their death, which may induce us to eſtimate their population at near twenty thouſand, including the women and the children above that age. It is thought that there are nearly as many Turks as Greeks in the iſland, which contains in all forty thouſand inhabitants. The Jews are not ſufficiently numerous to be taken into the calculation.

The iſland is divided into lordſhips; but whereas the aga of other countries is obliged to join the land-forces when required, at LESBOS, he is ſubject to a maritime duty, from which he almoſt always finds means to exempt himſelf by making ſome pecuniary ſacrifices.

Through a cuſtom undoubtedly very ancient, and which the author of the *Voyage littéraire de la Grèce* has very properly remarked, the eldeſt daughter inherits alone, in this iſland, the property of the father and mother, to the excluſion of the ſons and the other daughters. This cuſtom, which time

had converted into a law, was reſpected and religiouſly followed, although every child had the power of having recourſe to a Turkiſh tribunal, and of invoking the ſacred rights of nature. Within a ſhort time the patriarch of CONSTANTINOPLE, the archbiſhop and all the clergy of MITYLENE, have ſomewhat modified this law by admitting all the daughters to the partition in the following proportion. The firſt born receives one-third of the inheritance, the ſecond has for her ſhare one-third of the portion which her ſiſter has left; the third has in like manner a third, and ſo on to the laſt, always beginning again to divide what remains, the third being deducted in the order of primogeniture.

The mountains of the iſland, which I croſſed, are all wooded; the ALEPPO pine grows there in abundance and attains a conſiderable ſize: the ſtone pine is alſo ſeen there, and ſome ſtalk-fruited oaks; the arbutus, the andrachne, the lentiſk, the turpentine-tree, the myrtle, the agnus caſtus, a few leguminous ſhrubs, and ſeveral rock-roſes, among which I diſtinguiſhed that which yields the ladanum, are there ſcattered in great quantities. The *velani* oak is more common on the riſing grounds and in the plains than on the mountains. The elm grows in the low and watered places, and the plane-tree is ſcarcely to be met with but on the brinks of the rivulets and torrents. The inhabitants, by means of fire, draw from the pine a tolerably large quantity of pitch, for the uſe of the dock-yard eſtabliſhed near the ſouth harbour, or for the careening of the veſſels and boats which come to MITYLENE for that purpoſe. It is from the coaſt of ASIA that the beſt timber for ſhip-building is obtained. It is there in great plenty; but as it is troubleſome and expenſive to be procured, the Turks confine themſelves to that which grows at no great diſtance from the ſea.

The quantity of oil which is exported from this iſland in ordinary ſeaſons is eſtimated at upwards of fifty thouſand quintals. Almoſt the whole of it is

ſent

ſent to CONSTANTINOPLE. The French formerly drew hence a great deal, and had a vice-conſul eſtabliſhed at MITYLENE: the government has aboliſhed the vice-conſulate ſince the merchants have confined themſelves to the oils of CANDIA and of the MOREA, which they find cheaper than thoſe of LESBOS.

This oil is, in general, but of an indifferent quality, becauſe the inhabitants not having a ſufficiency of mills are obliged to gather their olives ſlowly. Thoſe which fall from the tree, and remain ſome time on the ground, ſpoil more or leſs quickly, according as the weather is more or leſs damp and rainy: beſides, they are accuſtomed, before they ſend olives to the mill, to keep them heaped up in places by no means ſpacious, and to throw over them a quantity of marine ſalt, with a view of preventing their fermentation, and keeping them, as long as poſſible, from decay.

ITALY draws from MITYLENE eight thouſand quintals of *velanida*, a part of which comes from the coaſt of ASIA. Dried figs are an article of exportation of little importance, as well as wool.

Cotton, ſeſamum, ſilk, honey, wax, and different ſpecies of grain, are gathered in a ſmall quantity; but the laſt are not ſufficient for the wants of the inhabitants, who draw a great deal of wheat and barley from the coaſt of ASIA. They alſo import oxen, horſes, and mules, for agriculture and draught, as well as part of the ſheep that are killed at the ſlaughter-houſes.

Wine is ſcarce at the preſent day, becauſe a great part of the grapes is employed by the Turks in making confection, and becauſe the Greeks are accuſtomed to convert the other into brandy. In order to procure ſome, we were under the neceſſity of applying to the caloyers and to the richeſt Greeks, and that which was brought to us ſuſtained very ill the reputation that the

wine of LESBOS formerly enjoyed: it was ſweet and ill flavoured, as are, in general, all the wines of the ARCHIPELAGO.

There are no rivers in LESBOS: a few torrents, by no means extenſive, receive in winter the ſuperabundant rain-waters, and carry them to the ſea; but there are a great number of ſprings whoſe water, very good for drinking, is ſufficiently conſiderable for watering part of the plains, and, by that means, procuring to the inhabitants, legumes, herbage, and fruits.

CHAPTER VI.

Arrival at Scio.—*Defcription of the ifland.—Manners and indufty of the inhabitants.—Privileges.—Antiquities.—Natural hiftory.—Productions and commerce.*

On the 28th of Pluviôfe (16th of February) the wind being faint at eaft-north-eaft, the weather very fine, and the fea almoft fmooth, we embarked about feven o'clock in the morning in a large decked boat, which was getting under fail for Scio. We foon doubled Cape *Malea*, or Cape *Santa Maria:* we paffed at a little diftance from Port *Olivier*, and already faw very diftinctly the Ifland of Scio, when the wind died away by degrees, and left us becalmed: but it foon fprang up again, and blew from the fouth-eaft without interruption all the reft of the day. We hugged the wind as clofely as poffible; we alfo made ufe of our oars; but, notwithftanding our efforts, we could not reach the Spalmadori Iflands, fo that we found ourfelves at fun-fet to the northward of the Ifland of Scio. The night was calm: we followed the coaft by means of our oars; and, on the 29th (17th of February) at fun-rife, we entered the harbour, fituated in the middle of the eaft coaft.

The harbour of Scio, whofe entrance is indicated by two light-houfes, is clofed towards the fouth-eaft by a jetty almoft even with the water's edge. Sufficiently fpacious formerly for the trade of the ifland, and of all the Archipelago, it is daily becoming choked up, without the Turks being at the fmalleft expenfe to remove the obftructions and keep it in order.

The

The citadel, built by the Genoefe, commands the harbour; an efplanade, fomewhat extenfive, feparates it from the town, and a ditch dug all round is intended to receive the waters of the fea in cafe of fiege. The fortifications are regular, although ancient: they are fallen into ruins in feveral places, and the guns are at this day almoft without carriages, with the exception of the battery which defends the entrance of the harbour. The infide of the citadel is full of houfes, capable of lodging with eafe the feven or eight hundred janizaries who conftitute the whole ftrength of the ifland; but they are partly in ruins, and the Turks, as is well known, have much more inclination to pull down than to fet up.

The town is large and well built; the ftreets are ftraight, paved, and tolerably clean; the houfes are high, all in mafonry, the greater part of hewn ftone: fandftone, or calcareous ftone, is made ufe of indifcriminately. From a few diftricts of the ifland is procured a hard, reddifh fandftone, with a very fine grain, which is employed with advantage for the jams of the doors and windows, for paving the ground-floor, and for building the façades of the churches. It is, no doubt, this ftone which was anciently diftinguifhed by the name of jafper, and of which STRABO, PLINY, and CICERO have fpoken.

It is the cuftom at SCIO to make, in the centre of the houfes, a fpacious apartment, very lofty, which the inhabitants ufe in fummer during the heat of the day. They breathe a pure air, evening and morning, on the terrace or flat roof of the houfes, and at the fame time they enjoy the profpect of the country and of the fea.

SCIO, as to its extent, is fomewhat lefs confiderable than LESBOS. Its length from north to fouth is about fifty miles: its breadth varies greatly, on account of the windings which the coaft prefents: it is nearly twelve miles

towards the ſouth part, and fifteen towards the north part. It is ſeparated from ASIA by a channel, whoſe width is at leaſt eight or nine miles.

The town is commanded, to the weſt and to the north, by ſchiſtoſe, granitical hills, rather arid, but, nevertheleſs, ſuſceptible of culture. To the north-weſt of theſe hills are ſeen nothing but calcareous mountains, almoſt naked, which ſcarcely leave between them a few ſpaces, that the rural induſtry of the inhabitants can turn to account. To the ſouth of the town, the eye extends with more pleaſure over a plain two leagues in extent, extremely fertile, covered with beautiful country-houſes, and adorned with gardens more or leſs ſpacious, in which are cultivated all the fruits of EUROPE, and moſt of its legumes.

The orange-tree, the common lemon-tree, the ſweet Seville orange-tree and the *cédrat* or bergamot citron-tree*, are there ſcattered with profuſion and crowded together without order. The fig-tree, the pomegranate-tree, and the plum-tree, are in rather leſs plenty. The peach-tree, the apricot-tree, the almond-tree, and the black mulberry-tree, are alſo to be met with. The roſe-tree is cultivated every where in good lands, as well as in thoſe of an indifferent quality. The ſolanum melongena, the hibiſcus eſculentus, the muſk-melon, the cucumber, and the water-melon, occupy the ſpaces which are not planted.

Theſe gardens are watered by a few ſprings, which flow from the neighbouring mountains, or by wells from which the water is raiſed by means of a

* *Cédrat, cédra,* or *citronnier-bergamote.* This is a variety of the *citrus medica* of LINNÆUS. It is the *citrus mella-roſa* of LAMARCK. The *cédrat* is diſtinguiſhed from the common citron-tree by its leaf, which has the odour of the roſe; by its fruit, which is red; and by the piſtil of its flower, which is ſhort. From the rind of the fruit of this tree, the perfume called *bergamot* is extracted.—*Tranſlator.*

wheel

wheel and two ropes, to which are adapted earthen pots placed the one after the other.

Beyond this plain, and in all the ſouth part of the iſland, the lands are almoſt every where ſuſceptible of culture, although they are, in general, of middling quality. The ground is leſs elevated, leſs uneven, than in the north part, and the population is there more conſiderable.

According to the regiſters of the government, the population of Scio is to be eſtimated at one hundred and ten thouſand inhabitants. In the capital are reckoned thirty thouſand; namely: three thouſand five hundred Turks, one thouſand five hundred Greek Roman catholics, and twenty-five thouſand Greek ſchiſmatics: about one hundred Jews may be added to this calculation. There are ſixty-eight villages in the iſland, all inhabited by Greeks. The villages which furniſh maſtic, to the number of twenty-four, are the moſt populous and the moſt rich: *Pirghi*, ſituated to the weſt, is the largeſt of all. *Ninita*, *Calamoti*, and *Calimatia*, towards the ſouth, are, next to it, the moſt conſiderable of the iſland. *Volisso*, ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, oppoſite to *Psera*, is remarkable for the rude and almoſt ſavage air of its inhabitants. However, all the villages, whatever may be their extent and ſituation, are tolerably well built, and have almoſt all an encloſure capable of ſecuring them from a *coup de main* from a corſair.

The legiſlator who may wiſh to obſerve the influence of inſtitutions and of laws on the morals, character, and induſtry of man, ought principally to turn his eye towards a people who, living under the ſame ſky, on the ſame ſoil, profeſſing the ſame religion, differ, nevertheleſs, from themſelves to ſuch a degree that they appear incognizable. After having croſſed a little arm of the ſea, I thought myſelf tranſported into another region, into another climate: I had ſeen the Greek bent under the yoke of the moſt frightful

deſpotiſm;

deſpotiſm: he was deceitful, rude, timid, ignorant, ſuperſtitious, and poor *: here he enjoys a ſhadow of liberty; he is honeſt, civil, bold, induſtrious, witty, intelligent, and rich. Here I no longer find that mixture of pride and meanneſs which characterizes the Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of a great part of the LEVANT; that timidity, that cowardice, which is occaſioned by perpetual fear, that bigotry which prevents no crime. What diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of SCIO from the other Greeks, is a decided inclination towards commerce, a warm taſte for the arts, a keen deſire for enterpriſe; it is a ſprightly, pleaſant, epigrammatic wit; it is ſometimes a ſort of mad and burleſque gaiety, which has given riſe to the following proverb: "*It is as uncommon to find a green horſe, as a prudent Sciot.*"

However true may be the overſtrained meaning of this proverb, in regard to a few inhabitants of SCIO, there are a greater number who know how to combine the moſt circumſpect prudence with the moſt lively and moſt amiable ſprightlineſs. No other town in the LEVANT preſents ſo great a maſs of information; no other contains ſo many men exempt from prejudices, full of good ſenſe and reaſon, and bleſſed with a head better organized.

Some among them may, nevertheleſs, be reproached with a ridiculous pride, a miſplaced fanaticiſm. We have ſeen fools find the gratification of their vanity in a rich portfolio, a fine houſe, or a numerous ſet of ſervants. The ignorant man, who had no perſonal titles to diſplay in ſociety, thought to be quit towards it in recalling to mind thoſe of his anceſtors. The ſtruggle which exiſts between the two churches, has frequently given riſe to ſcandalous ſcenes, of which the Turks alone have taken advantage; and the influence of the prieſthood is, perhaps, too great in a country that wiſhes to apply itſelf to agriculture and commerce.

* There are ſome exceptions to be made in the capital.

Notwithſtanding their groteſque dreſs, (See *Plate X.*) the women are more amiable than thoſe of the capital, becauſe they are more courteous, more gay, more lively, and more witty. They are ſeen with tolerable freedom at their own home in preſence of their relations, and they enjoy, more than elſewhere, a liberty which they ſeldom abuſe. They ſpend, in all ſeaſons, part of the day in ſinging and working, playing or amuſing themſelves before their houſes: they make up to paſſengers, frequently ſpeak to them firſt, without knowing them; aim at them a jeſt or an epigram, if the latter diſpleaſe; pay them a delicate, witty compliment, if they have an agreeable manner, a prepoſſeſſing countenance. If you anſwer them in the ſame tone, the converſation begins aloud: you exert all your wit and gentility, you laugh, and you part from each other pleaſed and gratified.

If you go to the eſplanade, into the gardens, and round the town, you will meet, on Sundays and holidays, groups of young damſels, who ſtop you very frequently, play you a thouſand pranks, aſk you for money, offer you flowers and comfits: you may in like manner addreſs yourſelf to them firſt, and begin with them by ſome pleaſantry.

But in this country every thing paſſes in converſation with the girls; and the married women are much more reſerved than one would ſuppoſe at the firſt acceſs. It is not that Scio does not reſemble almoſt all the towns of Europe, and that amorous intrigues do not frequently occur; but ſcandal, at leaſt, is rare: public proſtitutes conceal themſelves, and decorum reigns every where.

Though circumſpect in regard to the Turks whom they meet, the women of Scio do not addreſs themſelves to them, nor do they anſwer their queſtions: they know that they would expoſe themſelves to ſome brutality on their part, or at leaſt to ſome indecent converſation. But they preſerve

in

in their preſence that free air, that confident look, which is not to be ſeen even in the women of the capital.

Whether eaſy circumſtances and gaiety, under a beautiful ſky, alike concur to give to women agreeable forms, regular features, ſoft and ſlightly animated colours; or whether the Greek women have leſs degenerated here than elſewhere from their ancient beauty, it is certain that there are not to be found, in any other country of the LEVANT, ſo many beautiful women as at SCIO, and, nevertheleſs, ſubjugated by a bad taſte; they make too great a uſe of red, white, and black, which, very far from adding to their charms, cauſe that ſoftneſs to diſappear, conceal that delicate complexion, deſtroy that bloom, which every where render women ſo agreeable and ſo captivating.

Here they frequent the baths much more ſeldom than the Greek women of SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, and this, perhaps, is the reaſon why their beauty laſts longer. They attribute the whiteneſs of their teeth to the almoſt continual and general cuſtom of having maſtic inceſſantly in their mouth; but, perhaps, they owe this advantage ſtill more to the diſlike that they have to ſmoking, in which the others find an inexpreſſible pleaſure.

Economical and temperate in their family, the richeſt, as well as the pooreſt, ſhew an exceſſive love of gain. Thoſe leſs gifted by fortune employ themſelves in making ſtockings, caps, and purſes, which they ſell to paſſengers, or carry to their dealers. The rich women embroider handkerchiefs and all the linen in uſe among the Orientals; ſeveral have a frame in their own houſe, and work at ſome ſort of ſilk or cotton ſtuff. Sweetmeats, conſerves of roſes and orange-flowers, ſirups of lemon and bergamot-citron, occupy a great number of women of all ages and of all conditions. It is generally in the country that they breed the ſilk-worm and ſpin cotton.

Thoſe who apply themſelves more particularly to embroidery, give to the ſilks which they employ the colours that they wiſh. They obtain, among others, a gold yellow colour with the branches of the *celtis orientalis* *, or the leaves of the henné or Egyptian privet; a bright yellow with the flowers of broom, and the ſtems of the ſilvery-leaved daphne or tartonraira. The roots of the apple-tree yield them a pale roſe colour. The wood of the quince-tree furniſhes a very bright fleſh colour. They draw from the branches of the peach-tree a bright green, and from the leaves a deep one.

They cut the ligneous ſubſtances into little bits, ſteep them in water for two days, boil them the third day till the liquor is reduced to one half: they ſtrain it through a cloth, add a little alum, and ſet it again over the fire. As ſoon as the water boils, they ſteep their ſilk for a longer or ſhorter time, according as they wiſh to obtain a colour more or leſs deep.

The red peelings of onions yield them a tolerably bright orange colour: yellow: they ſet them to ſoak in water for four or five days, and boil them with a little alum: they add a ſpoonful of cochineal, or of kermes, when they wiſh to obtain a beautiful red.

The rind of the walnut, while green, which is taken off when they pickle that fruit, affords them a green more or leſs deep.

They alſo make uſe of the galnut, of the cup of the *velani* oak, of madder-root, and of all the colouring ſubſtances employed in EUROPE.

In no iſland of the ARCHIPELAGO, nor in any country of TURKEY, did we ſee lands ſo well cultivated, commerce ſo active, and induſtry ſo great, as

* *Ang.* Oriental nettle-tree.—*T.*

at

at Scio. Grounds the moſt arid, and moſt ſtony, improve by degrees under the hand of the Sciot, and become fit to receive ſome ſeeds or ſome uſeful trees. There is no kind of traffic to which he is a ſtranger, no hazardous enterpriſe that he does not attempt. Here no one is idle: he who is not a prieſt, is moſt certainly a merchant, manufacturer, artiſan, mariner, or cultivator.

If agriculture and induſtry ſcarcely leave any thing to be wiſhed for in this iſland, it is becauſe there is no part of the Ottoman Empire that enjoys more effectual protection, or is more favoured by the government. Here, through a concurrence of fortunate circumſtances, private intereſt is in uniſon with public intereſt. As the appanage of a ſultana, the iſland is under her immediate protection. A naïb here adminiſters juſtice for the molla of Constantinople: the latter has an intereſt in watching over his ſubſtitute, and in cauſing him to be recalled, if the complaints made againſt him prove well founded. The ſultan has granted privileges to the moſt populous part of the iſland, to all the villages whoſe inhabitants cultivate the maſtic deſtined for his ſeraglio: he has withdrawn them from the rod of the mutſelim, and granted them an aga, who particularly farms that valuable commodity. The town likewiſe enjoys a great number of privileges, of which I ſhall ſpeak farther on. Laſtly, the governor, who at the ſame time farms the cuſtom-houſe duties and taxes, applies himſelf to make the moſt of the one, by the protection and the accommodation which he grants to the merchants and cultivators; he does not indulge himſelf with regard to others in perſecutions, and ruinous exactions, which too frequently overſet the fortune of the tributary ſubjects in the other towns. Here the poor man as well as the rich one, the cultivator as well as the merchant, the villager as well as the inhabitant of the town, are all alike protected, all may alike prefer their complaints, all may demand and obtain the removal of a man who ſhould abuſe too much the authority intruſted to him.

The

The cuſtom-houſe duty is regulated at five per cent. as well in regard to the Greeks as to the Muſſulmans; and from the eſtimate which is made of the cloths manufactured in the country, it follows that they ſcarcely pay three per cent. on being exported.

As for the taxes, their aſſeſſment is made, for the inhabitants of the town, by the general primates or chiefs of the diſtrict; the *yeronda*, or particular primate of each village, fixes thoſe of the cultivators of his canton. The firſt of theſe taxes is laid on property and induſtry; it ought to be levied at the rate of one piaſtre on five hundred of income, if the canons of ſultan SELIM were followed: but the long ſtay at SCIO of ſome officers of the PORTE, that of the troops of ASIA, of the Turkiſh and BARBARY ſquadrons, and a thouſand other occaſions of expenſe at the charge of the inhabitants, have from time to time furniſhed a pretext for increaſing this tax, and for carrying it to four piaſtres.

The iſland is, beſides, ſubject as well as thoſe of the ARCHIPELAGO, to the duty which the captain-pacha annually levies on them. SCIO formerly paid twenty-four purſes: at this day it pays forty-eight*.

All the ſtuffs manufactured in the iſland are, before they are ſent out of it, ſubject to a mark or ſeal affixed by the mutſelim, under penalty of confiſcation and fine: they pay the value of ſix aſpres† per pique‡, when they are wrought in gold or in ſilver: plain ſilk ſtuffs pay only two aſpres: calicoes, dimities, and other cotton cloths, pay much leſs.

* A purſe contains 500 piaſtres: at the preſent day, it may be valued, at nearly 1000 livres, (*circa*. 41 l. ſterling.)

† The aſpre is the third of a parat. The parat is worth nearly five centimes.

‡ The pique is a meaſure of from twenty-five to twenty-ſix inches.

The karatch, or capitation, to which non-Muſſulmans are ſubject throughout the whole empire, was, after the conqueſt of the iſland, compounded for the villages, and fixed in proportion to their population and the extent of their territory. This tax has not varied ſince that time, although the population of ſome villages has increaſed, and, in ſome others, has conſiderably diminiſhed. Thoſe which furniſh maſtic, pay the karatch with that commodity.

In the town, all males, from the age of puberty, and through abuſe from ten to twelve years old, are inſcribed on a regiſter, and divided into three claſſes. Thoſe of the firſt pay eleven piaſtres; thoſe of the ſecond five and a half; and thoſe of the third two piaſtres and three-fourths. Women are exempt from this tax, and cannot be proſecuted for their huſband or their children when abſent. It may eaſily be conceived that the avidity of the collectors of the karatch would make them confound, pretty often, all thoſe ſubject to contribution, and induce them to increaſe, as much as they could, the firſt and ſecond claſſes, if the primates had not the right of cauſing the complaints of the oppreſſed to be heard, and of requiring imperiouſly that juſtice ſhould be adminiſtered.

Independently of theſe legitimate duties, which the governor is authorized to levy in his quality of muhaſſil or farmer, he levies, as mutſelim, arbitrary and illegal taxes, the produce of which, conſidered ſeparately, is by no means burdenſome to the inhabitants, but the total eſtimate of which forms a tolerably large ſum. Theſe taxes, which are the perquiſites of his place, fall on moſt eatables, and particularly on butcher's meat, the price of which is always exorbitant at Scio, under the pretext that the contractors are obliged to ſend to the coaſt of Asia for the ſheep which are there ſold. No one doubts that this excluſive privilege of ſupplying the ſhambles with ſheep is dearly

dearly purchaſed of the mutſelim, and that the naïb and janazary-aga cauſe themſelves to be paid for their ſilence in this reſpect.

Private individuals, who obtain from the mutſelim places, commiſſions, excluſive permiſſions, and ſmall farms, alſo pay him every year a retribution more or leſs great, according to their importance, and according to the competition which never fails to take place.

The *ſoubachi*, chief of the patrol, to whom the police of the town and of the country is intruſted (with the exception of the villages where maſtic is gathered) finds a thouſand opportunities of haraſſing and ſqueezing the unfortunate perſons who are off their guard for a moment. Eſtabliſhed in order to be the ſcourge of proſtitutes, he regiſters their name, taxes them, and becomes their protector. All the taverns alſo pay him a tax, of which he gives an account to the mutſelim. Quarrels, broils, law-ſuits, faults of the moſt trifling nature, are ſo many opportunities which the rapacity of the ſoubachi ſuffers not to eſcape: innocent and guilty, are all crowded into the priſons of his maſter, and are not releaſed till after they have juſtified themſelves, or have procured their liberation by dint of money.

Throughout the Ottoman Empire pecuniary fines are an inexhauſtible mine in the hands of an able governor, not over-burdened with delicacy; but here he fears, with reaſon, the complaints of the chief perſons of the diſtrict, and the reſentment of the ſultana protectreſs of the iſland. More than once, mutſelims have been known to be recalled and puniſhed on the complaint of the primates. Theſe examples, far from frequent no doubt, are nevertheleſs ſufficient for them all to be cautious, and not to exceed too much the limits of their duties.

Almoſt

Almoſt all the lands of the Ottoman Empire, as I have elſewhere ſaid, are burdened with an annual rent to the agas or lords: thoſe of Scio, through a ſpecial favour of Soliman I. have preſerved almoſt all the privileges which they enjoyed under the domination of the Genoeſe. The inhabitants of the villages which furniſh maſtic acknowledge for chief no other than the aga who farms that production: exempt from contributing their labour gratuitouſly on public occaſions, they are obliged only to convey the maſtic to the town, and furniſh horſes and beaſts of burden to this aga, when he travels about the villages in order to collect it.

We had an opportunity of ſeeing the aga in his tour: preceded by military muſic, followed by ſeveral tchocadars, and ſurrounded by a great number of villagers eager to attend him, we ſhould much rather have taken him for a military commander than a ſimple farmer of taxes, had we not been previouſly informed. As perſons travelling in the ſervice of the Republic, he received us with much attention, made us a preſent of a few pounds of the fineſt maſtic that he had, and gave us letters for the head men of the villages whither we were going. We obtained every where, by means of theſe letters, convenient lodgings, the food that we aſked for, and the horſes that we wanted.

One of the nobleſt privileges of the Sciots, that which ſerves as a dam againſt the torrent of the judicial injuſtice of the Turks, is to have notaries of their religion, whoſe acts, in the Greek dialect, are reſpected by the Ottomans, and received at their tribunal as authentic documents. The Roman catholics have one who aſſumes the title of apoſtolical notary. The Greeks, infinitely more numerous, have ſeveral.

Next to this privilege, the greateſt of all, is that of nominating among them five primates, whoſe functions conſiſt in defending with firmneſs the

validity of thefe acts, in examining and judging all the litigious affairs of the ifland, as to civil matters, which concern them. Criminal matters are not within the competency of thefe primates: however, as the redrefs of public grievances belongs to them, they receive the declarations of the plaintiffs, accufe the delinquent to the government, and profecute his trial at the Turkifh tribunal.

The affeffment and collection of the taxes are committed to their care: they pour their amount into the coffer of the muhaffil, without any other deduction than the fees of the collectors. They are appointed for a year only, by the majority of votes, in a general affembly convoked for that purpofe. Three of thefe primates are taken from among the Greeks, and two from among the Roman catholics.

At the fame time are appointed the *protomaftofi*, a fort of conful-judges, whofe functions confift in taking cognizance of all litigious affairs relative to purchafes and fales, manufactures, and, in general, every thing that relates to the commerce of the ifland, both interior and exterior. They prevent illegal acts and fmuggling; they deal roughly with thofe who, in order to fave the duty, have not caufed the governor's feal to be put to the ftuffs and linens which they wifh to fend abroad. In all cafes their fentence is to be carried into execution without appeal: but in the latter, the muhaffil requires from the delinquent, befides the confifcation of the piece not marked, a fum of money proportioned to the value of the goods on which he wifhed to evade the duty.

This municipal jurifdiction, very much refpected by the Turks, is compofed of three Greeks and one Roman catholic: it is annual, more frequently biennial, and is never intrufted to any but merchants, who join to a knowledge of commerce an unequivocal reputation for probity.

The

The inhabitants of Scio have likewiſe the privilege of electing every year two intendants of health, whoſe number they increaſe in caſe of the plague. Their power extends in this reſpect over all who inhabit or land on the iſland, with the exception of the Turks and Franks. They are allowed to prohibit a peſtiferous village from all communication with the town, at the ſame time furniſhing it, nevertheleſs, with all the aſſiſtance which humanity claims in ſimilar caſes. But, woe be to the cultivator, who, through the allurement of gain, or any other motive, ſhould paſs the limits which the intereſt of all has traced! He would be apprehended, and ſubjected to a cruel baſtinado.

Theſe intendants allow not a ſuſpected boat to enter the harbour; they oblige her to remain in the road, inform themſelves frequently of the health of the crew; and if there be any ſailor attacked by the plague, they cauſe him to be conveyed to the lazaretto. One of them precedes him, armed with a ſtick, always ready to ſtrike whoever ſhould not get out of the way at the word *alarga*, pronounced with a ſtrong voice.

The lazaretto, which we viſited at a time when there was no uneaſineſs felt reſpecting the plague, is contained in a vaſt encloſure, towards the ſea, to the north of the town. The entrance to it is by a road ſhaded by an arbour, and paved with ſtones variouſly coloured. It conſiſts of ſeveral piles of building ſeparated from each other, intended, ſome for the ſick, and others for the convaleſcents.

When the plague is in the town, the intendants alternately go their round; they ſtation guards at the infected houſes, in order to prevent all communication: they place about the ſick, in a condition to pay the expenſe, people capable of taking care of them; and if the peſtiferous perſon be poor, and deſtitute of aſſiſtance, they cauſe him to be taken to the

lazaretto, with all the effects belonging to him, ſuſceptible of being fumigated and purified.

Notwithſtanding the precautions which the Greeks and even the native Turks take to ſecure themſelves from this diſorder, the great acceſs of Turkiſh ſtrangers which cannot be oppoſed, the frequent arrival of ſhips of war, and perhaps too the negligence which occurs in examining the boats that are daily bringing eatables from ASIA, with which the iſland cannot diſpenſe, are ſo many cauſes that tend ſometimes to introduce the plague among them. That of 1788, which in a little time carried off fourteen thouſand perſons, will long be quoted as one of the moſt calamitous epochs in the hiſtory of this country.

Theſe intendants have alſo the inſpection of the hoſpital of lepers, ſituated in a narrow valley, at ſome diſtance to the north north-weſt of the town. Each patient has a very ſmall lodging and a very little garden which he is at liberty to cultivate. I ſaw with regret that, in the LEVANT, all lepers were conſidered as incurable, and that, in conſequence, there was not adminiſtered to any the aſſiſtance capable, perhaps, of effecting a cure. I invite European phyſicians who may be able to make ſome ſtay at SCIO, to occupy themſelves with this intereſting object. They will find in the intendants, in the primates, and in the notables of the town, every accommodation that they can want for the obſervations which they may wiſh to make, and the experiments which they may be inclined to try.

Muſſulman toleration, which leaves the Sciots the liberty of having a police, tribunals, and particular judges, is ſtill more indulgent in regard to their religion. The Greeks, infinitely more numerous, more rich, and more powerful than the Latins, poſſeſs about ſeven hundred churches in the iſland, a calculation which will, no doubt, appear exaggerated, but the exactneſs

of

of which was warranted to me by the beſt-informed perſons of Scio. Perſecuted by their adverſaries, the weak Latins have no more than four at the preſent day, a ſingle one in the town, and three in the country. The number of prieſts, as may well be imagined, is proportionate to this aſtoniſhing number of churches. It is extremely curious to ſee them diſplay, in the midſt of the fanatic Muſſulmans, all the pomp of the Greek and Roman religious ceremonies. Their proceſſions and interments attract an innumerable train; the prieſts in their ſurplices, the papas in their ſtoles, traverſe the ſtreets of the town, preceded by a long croſs, followed by a great number of faithful with a wax-taper in their hand. The ſtern Muſſulman ſees them paſs without murmuring, provided they pay homage to the moſques, provided they interrupt their ſinging at the ſight of that venerable place, that they detach the croſs from its ſtaff, and hold it humbly lowered.

The privilege of having bells to their churches is granted only to the inhabitants of the maſtic villages: they ſerve for calling them to prayers, to maſs, to work, to the gathering of the maſtic, to the parochial aſſemblies; they are likewiſe intended for giving the alarm in caſe of attack or fire.

Independently of the Latin churches of which I have ſpoken, there are three convents of friars under the protection of France. The capuchins conſider themſelves as proprietors of the conſular houſe, which makes a part of their convent. The monks had decamped a long time before our arrival at Scio, and the chapel was abandoned ſince the conſul no longer paid for the ſervice that was performed there before.

The hiſtory of Scio is loſt in the obſcurity of time, and is confounded with the errors of fable. At firſt under the rod of kings, next under republican agitation, then under the odious tyranny of factions, alternately independent

independent and ſubjected, never perhaps free and happy, the inhabitants of SCIO have paſſed ſucceſſively under the domination of the Perſians, under that of the Greeks, and under that of the Romans. The Venetians attempted to eſtabliſh themſelves there when the Europeans in a delirium were crowding towards the oriental regions, in order to drive the *infidel* Muſſulmans from the *Holy Land*. The Greek emperors ſoon after ſold the iſland to ſome Genoeſe nobles, and that republic had rendered it the emporium of an extenſive commerce, when, in 1566, SOLIMAN I. made himſelf maſter of it.

Favoured by the catholics of the country, the Venetians took poſſeſſion of SCIO, in 1693, towards the end of the reign of ACHMET II: they conducted themſelves there in a very indecorous and very impolitic manner, by perſecuting the Greeks enemies of the Latins. The year after MEZOMORTO, a Turkiſh admiral, had only to preſent himſelf to beat them and expel them from the iſland. Since that epoch, SCIO has not ceaſed to be ſubject to the empire of the creſcent.

The moſt ancient and the moſt valuable monument on which this iſland prides itſelf, is that it is called the *School of* HOMER. Four miles to the north of the town, at the foot of Mount *EPOS*, is found near the ſea-ſhore, a calcareous rock, whoſe ſummit is cut into the ſhape of a platform; it is about twenty feet in diameter: a ſeat crowns its circumference: in the centre is a ſquare block, which riſes from the rock to a foot and a half in height, and which bears on each of its ſides the figure of a mutilated ſphynx, ſcarcely cognizable. Such is this monument which the inhabitants conſider as the place where HOMER inſtructed and delighted his countrymen; for they are perſuaded that SCIO gave birth to that great man.

This

This opinion, warmly ſupported by ſome, ſtrongly conteſted by others, ſtill leaves the mind in ſuſpenſe. The moſt intelligent inhabitants of SCIO inſtance among others an arch of gray marble, which was ſtill ſhewn not long ſince, at *ERYTHES*, as an ancient monument belonging to the houſe in which HOMER was born. They alſo quote the excellent wine produced by the riſing grounds of ERYTHES, bordering on the Arviſian fields; a wine known at SCIO from times the moſt remote, under the name of *HOMER's nectar*. By their account, it is this nectar that was given him when he was weaned; it is the delicious wine of theſe riſing grounds, that was ſpilt on the altars which were erected to him when his verſes had rendered him immortal.

Two leagues beyond the *School of HOMER*, lies Port DAUPHIN, on which was ſituated the ancient *DELPHINIUM*. Ships of war anchor in this harbour in winter; whereas they find it more convenient and equally ſafe, in ſummer, to come to in the environs of the town of SCIO.

When you have paſſed the SPALMODORI Iſlands, and doubled the cape, you arrive at *CARDAMYLA*, where, according to TOURNEFORT, are to be ſeen the ruins of a temple which he believes to have been conſecrated to NEPTUNE. We did not land at *CARDAMYLA*, but we paſſed very cloſe to it on the day of our departure from MITYLENE. The coaſt in the environs is very elevated and ſteep: the rock, naked in ſeveral places, appeared to us every where calcareous.

To the weſt of the iſland, is perceived at a little diſtance from PIRGHI, in a ſmall plain that terminates at the ſea, ruins which muſt be conſidered as thoſe of the ancient *PHANUM*. This place, at the preſent day called *PHANA*, preſents heaps of rubbiſh, piles of ſtones, for the moſt part ſquare, ſmooth, and cut with a chiſel; but neither inſcription, pillar, nor baſs-reliefs are

there

there to be diſcovered: the anchorage expoſed to the north-weſt would be dangerous in winter for large ſhips. The Arviſian fields and riſing grounds, ſo celebrated formerly for the goodneſs of their wines, are more to the north, and make part of the territory of VOLISSO.

In the firſt excurſions which we made in the iſland, the inhabitants did not fail to direct our ſteps towards *SCLAVIA*, ſituated upwards of two leagues to the ſouth of SCIO. A running ſtream, freſh and copious, iſſues at the foot of ſome calcareous rocks, and waters gardens which lie below. This place, truly beautiful, truly picturesque, is held in veneration in the country: an infinite number of virtues are attributed to theſe waters, and it is believed that it was at this fountain that the beautiful HELEN came to bathe when ſhe inhabited the iſland.

With reſpect to ancient ſculpture, no remarkable monument of this kind is to be met with at Scio, except two headleſs buſts, let into the outer wall of a country-houſe built by the Genoeſe, at a little diſtance from the town. Citizen DIGEON, vice-conſul of the Republic, conſidered them as two buſts of ISIS, in which, according to him, the Egyptian chiſel of the reign of the PTOLEMIES was diſtinguiſhable; but the corſet with which they are clothed, as well as an ornament probably of metal, which they wore on the boſom, to judge of it from the hollows that are in it, incline us to think that theſe buſts are more modern, and, in all probability, the work of the Genoeſe.

Some pieces of pillars, ſome remains of capitals are ſtill to be ſeen in moſt of the villages which we traverſed, but no trace of ancient edifices, no veſtige of a temple is to be perceived; time and the hand of man have deſtroyed every thing.

Maſtic

Maſtic muſt be conſidered as one of the moſt important productions of the iſland, and the moſt valuable, ſince to this it is that the inhabitants of SCIO owe a part of their privileges, and the cultivators their independence, their comfort, and, perhaps, their happineſs. The lentiſk which produces it, differs not from that which grows in the ſouth of EUROPE and in all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. At SCIO, are remarked only a few ſlight varieties with larger leaves, which culture has produced, and which are perpetuated by layers and grafting.

In order to obtain the maſtic, numerous inciſions are made in the trunk and principal branches of the lentiſk, from the 15th to the 20th of July, according to the Greek calendar. There exudes little by little from all thoſe inciſions, a liquid juice which inſenſibly grows thicker, remains attached to the tree in drops more or leſs large, or falls and thickens on the ground, when it is very abundant. The former is the moſt in requeſt: it is detached with a ſharp iron inſtrument, half an inch in breadth at its extremity. Frequently cloths are placed under the tree, in order that the maſtic which trickles from it, may not be impregnated with earth and filth.

According to the regulations made on this ſubject, the firſt gathering cannot take place before the 27th of Auguſt. It laſts eight ſucceſſive days, after which freſh inciſions are made in the trees till the 25th of September, then the ſecond gathering is made, which likewiſe laſts eight days. After this time the trees are cut no more; but the maſtic which continues to run, is gathered till the 19th of November, on the Monday and Tueſday of every week. It is afterwards forbidden to gather this production.

The culture of the lentiſk is ſimple and eaſy: it conſiſts much more in cleanſing the ſoil than in turning it up. The cultivators diſpenſe with cutting this tree, and they take good care not to form it a handſome ſtem.

It has been diſcovered that the lentiſks which trail, yield much more maſtic than thoſe whoſe ſtem is ſtraight and ſhooting.

Leſs like trees than ſhrubs, their trunk ſcarcely acquires ſeven or eight inches in diameter, and their height is ſeldom above twelve or fifteen feet.

Citizen Digeon communicated to us an experiment which deſerves to be known. As it is forbidden to cultivate the lentiſk out of the limits traced by the government, a Turk thought to evade the law, and nevertheleſs obtain maſtic by grafting the lentiſk on young turpentine-trees. Theſe grafts ſucceeded perfectly well; but this man was very much aſtoniſhed, a few years after, to ſee flow from the inciſions that he had made, a ſubſtance which combined with the odour and the qualities of maſtic, the liquidneſs of turpentine.

Maſtic is gathered in twenty-one villages ſituated to the ſouth of the town. There are, beſides, three villages to the weſt, whoſe plantations far from productive have been abandoned. The latter have not, on that account, leſs preſerved their ancient denomination and the privileges which the others enjoy: they pay their impoſt in lime ſince they no longer furniſh maſtic.

This production amounts, one year with another, to fifty thouſand okes and even more. Twenty-one thouſand belong to the aga who farms this commodity, and are delivered by the cultivators in payment of their perſonal impoſt. They are paid for the ſurplus at the rate of 50 parats the oke (nearly 16 ſous the pound) and they are prohibited, under very ſevere penalties, from ſelling or diſpoſing of it to any other than the aga who farms it.

The

The beſt and fineſt quality is ſent to CONSTANTINOPLE for the palace of the Grand Signior. The ſecond quality is intended for CAIRO, and paſſes into the harems of the Mamalûks. The merchants generally obtain a mixture of the ſecond and third quality.

The women of SCIO, as well as the female Muſſulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jeweſſes of the whole empire, are in the habit of having maſtic inceſſantly in their mouth. This reſinous and odoriferous ſubſtance does not eaſily diſſolve; it becomes ſoft and very white by means of heat and ſaliva; it cleans the teeth, gives the breath an agreeable odour, ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and carries to the lungs balſamic emanations extremely ſalutary, and which may to a certain degree prevent the pulmonary conſumption, to which the inhabitants of the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO are very ſubject.

SCIO turpentine is daily becoming more ſcarce. Barely two hundred okes are collected at this day, whereas double that quantity was obtained formerly. Notches are made in the tree in lieu of inciſions, and underneath them is placed a ſmall earthen veſſel fit for receiving the liquor that flows from them. The turpentine-tree acquires a ſize rather conſiderable: ſome are ſeen near the Armenian burying-ground of CONSTANTINOPLE, on the road leading to BYUK-DE'RE', which are not inferior to our largeſt walnut-trees.

The women of SCIO are very fond of its fruit: the reſinous and very aromatic taſte of its pulp pleaſes them as much as that of the kernel; and as it is ſcarcely of the ſize of a pea, they eat at the ſame time the ſtone, the pulp of a bluiſh green which covers it, and the kernel which it contains. It is called in the country *tzicoudia*, a word whoſe ſignification is not to be found in any language of the LEVANT.

Although cotton is in great plenty at Scio, yet it does not ſuffice for the ſupply of the numerous manufactories which are there eſtabliſhed. The inhabitants are obliged to ſend for a tolerably large quantity from Romania and the coaſt of Asia. They manufacture plain cloths, dimities, ſwanſkins plain and ſhaggy, and a few coarſe calicoes ſtriped blue. The country-women ſpin cotton with a wheel; they alſo employ themſelves in making ſtockings and caps which they bring to ſell at the town.

The collection of ſilk, in ordinary years, is eſtimated at ten or twelve thouſand okes: it ſometimes amounts to fifteen thouſand, a quantity which is never ſufficient for ſupplying the manufactories of the town. About twenty thouſand okes are annually procured from Bursa, Adrianople, and Syria. The mulberry-tree which is cultivated at Scio, and with which the ſilk-worm is reared is that which we know under the name of *mûrier noir* or *mûrier d'Eſpagne* *. A few private perſons draw from the fruit, a brandy not very ſpirituous, but agreeable. The price of the leaf of the mulberry-tree arrived at its ſize, is from two to three piaſtres.

The iſland produces wheat, barley, wine, oil, and a few legumes; but the quantity of theſe commodities is ſo diſproportioned to that required by the number of the inhabitants that they are obliged to draw them from all quarters. The wheat is ſcarcely ſufficient to ſubſiſt them for three months. The wine furniſhes for the conſumption of ſeven or eight: it is, in general, ſweet and ſpirituous. That which rich individuals make with care, is as good as Malaga, Frontignac, and Cyprus wines, when they have acquired a little age.

* *Morus nigra.* Linn.—*Ang.* The common mulberry-tree.

The

The oil ſuffices for the wants of the inhabitants, in good crops; they procure that article from MITYLENE when theſe are bad or indifferent: here, as well as throughout the LEVANT, they ſalt a very great quantity of olives, according to the proceſs which I have mentioned elſewhere.

Oranges, common lemons, wild lemons, and bergamot-citrons which are brought during the winter and in the ſpring to CONSTANTINOPLE, ADRIANOPLE, and SMYRNA, are a very important article of trade which is eſtimated, one year with another, at 2,000,000 of our livres (*circa* 83,333l. ſterling.) A very agreeable ſirup, in great requeſt, is alſo made with the expreſſed juice of lemons and cedrats: it is ſet to thicken over the fire, after receiving the addition of a little ſugar or honey. It is ſent to CONSTANTINOPLE, to CAIRO, and into the BLACK SEA. The rinds of theſe fruits are preſerved in ſugar or honey, and are diſtributed all over the LEVANT.

The galls while yet green of a ſpecies of willow, *ſalvia pomifera*, are in like manner preſerved in ſugar or honey. This ſweetmeat is very agreeable, much eſteemed, and highly ſtomachic. The Sciots employ not only the galls of the country, but thoſe which they receive from the neighbouring iſlands.

The roſe-tree is alſo an important article of culture, either from the great quantity of conſerve of roſes which is there made, or from the eſſential oil which is extracted from it.

Dried figs are eſteemed, and are almoſt all ſent to SMYRNA and to CONSTANTINOPLE; of theſe the merchants of SMYRNA diſpatch to EUROPE, as well from SCIO as from the coaſt of ASIA, to the amount of 100,000 livres (*circa* 4,166l. ſterling).

In

In moſt of the gardens is ſeen the ſebeſten, whoſe oval fruit, a little ſmaller than a common olive, contains an excellent glue, employed throughout the LEVANT for bird-catching.

A plum-tree called *verdaſſier* is here cultivated: its fruit is large, oblong, of a pale green, and of a very agreeable taſte. It ripens in July, and laſts ſcarcely three weeks. The inhabitants make it an article of trade: they peel the plum, dry it in the ſun, pack it up in boxes, and ſend it to SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, where it is ſold as high as two piaſtres the oke.

The wax is not ſufficient for the great conſumption which is made of that article in the churches of the country: the inhabitants import it from GREECE and NATOLIA: they alſo import honey for ſirups, preſerves, and ſweetmeats which they prepare; that of GREECE is the moſt eſteemed.

It is reckoned that there are about five hundred looms employed in the manufacture of ſilk ſtuffs: the inhabitants of SCIO have ſucceeded in imitating, in ſome meaſure, our LYONS ſilks: but they have copied with more ſucceſs the INDIA ſilks and cottons, which they alſo draw from ALEPPO and DAMASCUS. Thoſe of SCIO are at this day ſuperior to thoſe of theſe two cities, the oldeſt manufacturing ones of the Ottoman Empire. They alſo make a conſiderable quantity of *gaitans* or ſilk loops preferable to thoſe of CONSTANTINOPLE and BURSA. They ſerve for the edging and buttonholes of the Turkiſh dreſſes: they alſo plait ſome in gold and in ſilver for thoſe of the women. There are much fewer looms for the cottons than for the ſilks.

The trade of the various cloths manufactured at SCIO is eſtimated at upwards of 6,000,000 of our livres (250,000l. ſterling).

We ſhall not here enter into an enumeration of the articles of natural hiſtory which this iſland furniſhes in abundance: it will be ſufficient for us for the moment to preſent three ſhells unknown to naturaliſts.

1. The *denticulated* bulimus *(Plate XVII. fig. 9. a. b.)* It reſembles, in point of form, colour, and bulk, the *nonpareil* bulimus. The laſt volute is a little angular and a little more ſtriated than the other thirteen. The mouth would be almoſt round if it had not a little poſterior ſinus: its inner rim is entirely denticulated. Two ſtronger teeth, which extend inwardly, are to be perceived; that which anſwers to the termination of the columella is more marked than the other. We found it at the foot of a wall, in a garden planted with orange-trees *.

2. The *whelk-like* melania *(fig. 8.)* It lives in the freſh waters of Scio, of almoſt all the iſlands of the Archipelago, of Crete, and of Syria. Its form is conical, and its colour dark; it is ſmooth, compoſed of eight volutes, the laſt of which, ſeen behind, is a little longer than the others taken together. The mouth is oblong-oval; the lip is thin and without ſinuoſities. The calloſity of the columella is white. The extremity of the ſhell is a little emarginated †.

3. In the freſh waters is alſo found the *oriental* planorbis, *(Plate XVII. fig. 11. a.* and *fig. 11. b.)* whoſe colour is ſimilar to that of the great planorbis of Europe; but it differs from it by its face which anſwers to the mouth,

* Bulimus denticulatus *ſiniſter, parvulus, elongatus, ſubtiliter ſtriatus, rufeſcens: apertura cum anguſto ſinu ſuborbiculata, undique multi-dentata.*

† Melania buccinoïdea *breviter fuſiformis; lævigata, fuliginoſa: callo columellari albo; baſi truncato, emarginato.*

being

being deeper and the outline of the mouth not being interrupted by the convexity of the ſecond volute. In this ſhell there can ſeldom be reckoned more than three rounded volutes, ſcarcely ſtriated*.

* PLANORBIS orientalis *parvulus, ſubtrigyratus, gyris depreſſiuſculis: margine convexo; facie ovali depreſſiore; apertura ſubovali.*

CHAPTER

CHAPTER VII.

Departure from Scio.—*Stay at* Tchesmé, *at* Tino, *at* Andros, *at* Myconi, *at* Delos, *at* Naxia, *at* Paros, *and at* Antiparos.

AFTER having in vain waited three months at SCIO, for letters from PARIS; after having transmitted to Citizen DESCORHES some reflections on the interesting countries which we had just visited, we resolved to repair to CRETE, and to examine the islands and the important places that should lie in our route: we sailed, in consequence, on the 21st of Floréal (10th of May) on board of a Greek boat which we had just hired, and, in four hours, we arrived at TCHESME', a small town of ASIA, situated almost opposite to SCIO, at the head of a spacious road to which art has had no occasion to add in order to make it a good harbour. A citadel somewhat extensive, constructed by the Genoese, runs sloping to the sea-shore, and seems intended to secure from all insult both the town and the harbour.

TCHESME' is built on the ruins of *Cyssus*. Its road, formerly famous from the victory which the fleet of the Romans there gained over that of ANTIOCHUS, is not less so, in our days, from the burning and the total destruction of the Turkish squadron, which happened in 1770. But the Romans took advantage of their victory; while the Russians, masters of the sea, and seconded by a good wind, durst not, after this event, force their way up the HELLESPONT, and run under the walls of the Seraglio to dictate to MUSTAPHA the conditions of peace which they might have imposed on him.

Geographers place at the head of a bay, two or three leagues to the north of TCHESME', the ancient ERYTHRÆ, celebrated for the oracles of the Sibyl; I chose to proceed thither on foot, while my colleague was purchasing at TCHESME', the provisions that we wanted. I left on the right the town and some chalky, calcareous hillocks; I traversed an uneven ground, fields in culture, hillocks uncultivated, and, after an hour's journey, I found myself in a plain that terminated at the bay of which I have just spoken. I saw, at a little distance from the sea, a spring rather copious, the water of which was harsh and burning: the environs presented marine salt. A poor building stood by the side of the spring: I was told that there are basins where a person may bathe; I wished to enter them: perceiving some Turks, I retired, and was proceeding towards the sea, when, a moment after, I saw two of them, with the yatagan in their hand, advancing towards me, threatening me and calling me *dog* and *infidel*. I had with me only a Greek servant, little capable of seconding me, though strong as HERCULES; but I had a sword-cane: this was better. I immediately unsheathed my weapon, and, in a firm and imposing voice, desired them to be told, that if they did not instantly retire, I would cause five hundred blows to be given them with a stick, in my presence, by the aga of TCHESME'. This threat and, above all, my sword, made these Turks change their tone. "He is a mad-"man, he is a Frenchman," said they to each other; "let us leave him "alone."

I did not think it prudent to go and see the ruins of ERYTHRÆ. I gathered several interesting plants, and returned to the harbour.

The territory of TCHESME' furnishes grain and fruit in abundance: a little oil and a great many raisins are there gathered. It is from this harbour that SCIO draws a great part of its subsistence, and that it frequently keeps up an intercourse with SMYRNA.

The

The next day, the 22d. (11th of May,) we ſet ſail for NAXIA with a light breeze from the north. We followed the coaſt of ASIA, leaving on the right two ſmall deſert iſlands; and on the left, Cape BLANCO; we saw, to the ſouth of SCIO, the iſlet called *VENETICO*. We perceived diſtinctly ahead of us, ANDROS, TINO, MYCONI, NICARIA, and SAMOS: our boat was ſteering towards MYCONI, where we were in hopes to arrive before dark; but, about four o'clock in the afternoon, there appeared, to the north-weſt, ſome clouds which grew bigger and advanced towards us. Our mariners, uneaſy, were afraid of a ſudden and hard ſquall; it happened: the north-weſt wind was violent, but of ſhort duration. Our boat was good, and lightly laden. They put us down below, laid over the hatches, and, after having lowered all the ſails, with the exception of the fore-ſail only, they bore up and put before the wind. I ſuffered by the ſtorm ſo much the more ſeverely, as I was deprived of air. My colleague was not at all ſick; he had ſeen, during his voyage to the auſtral ſhores, ſeas more rough, hurricanes more terrible. We remained upwards of an hour in our nook, after which we were allowed to take the air and to participate in the joy of the crew. The wind had lulled and appeared to be getting round to the northward; the clouds were diſperſing. The ſailors aſked for wine; we gave them ſome, at the ſame time requeſting them to drink with moderation: their ebriety was to be feared with the return of bad weather. However, it was very fine the reſt of the day; the wind died away more and more, the night was ſtill, part of the crew ſlept: we reſted very well, and the next day on our riſing, finding ourſelves very cloſe to TINO, we were exceedingly glad to go on ſhore in order to repoſe for a moment.

We landed, to the eaſt, in a ſmall roadſtead ſheltered by calcareous rocks, on which we remarked, among other plants, the thornleſs caper-buſh, whoſe leaf is thicker and more ſucculent than that of the common one. We then aſcended a hill in order to herborize and ſee the interior of the iſland; after

which we ſet ſail, and ſtood on and anchored to the ſouthward, in the road-ſtead, on whoſe ſhore is built the little town of *San Nicolo*, which occupies the place of the ancient capital. The citadel is up the country, four miles from that ſpot, on a very lofty hill.

Hiſtory informs us that the Tinians had furniſhed troops to the Greeks at the battle of Platæa; that afterwards they had ſubmitted to the Perſians, as well as all the inhabitants of the Cyclades. Tino was united to the Empire of the East when the Venetians, in 1207, made themſelves maſters of it, and fortified it in ſuch a manner that, for a long time, it reſiſted alone all the efforts of the Ottoman forces.

In 1537, Barbarossa, after having taken Skyro, Patmos, Nio, Stampalia, Paros, and ſome other iſlands of the Archipelago, came and attacked it with a conſiderable fleet and ſome land-forces. He had already made himſelf maſter of part of the iſland; already had ſeveral villages capitulated; but ſome timely ſuccours ſent from Candia obliged the Turks to retire.

In 1570, Selim II. meditating the conqueſt of Cyprus, ſent conſiderable forces againſt this iſland, then poſſeſſed by the Venetians: the Turkiſh admiral who commanded them, made, in paſſing, a deſcent on Tino, ravaged the country, burnt ſome villages, and laid ſiege to the fortreſs. The proveditor Paruta defended himſelf with ſo much courage, that the Turks did not think fit to loſe their time in the conqueſt of an iſland of little importance, which could not fail to fall ſooner or later into their power.

Two years after, the Turks preſented themſelves with ſixty ſhips; but they again found the courage of the inhabitants, and the prudence of the governor, obſtacles which they were unable to ſurmount. They retired after having

having ravaged the iſland anew, and carried off ſome flocks, ſome women, and ſome children.

In 1684, under MAHOMET IV. MOROSINI beat and handled very roughly the Turkiſh fleet which had come to attack the iſland for the fourth time. But in 1714, under the reign of ACHMET III. the iſland ſurrendered to DIANUM-COGGIA, captain-pacha, who had only eleven gallies and eight ſhips. The proveditor BERNARDO BALBI is reproached with having made but a feeble reſiſtance, and with having capitulated when he ought to have fought and to have waited for the ſuccour which the Republic was on the point of ſending to him.

Next to SCIO, TINO is the moſt induſtrious country of the ARCHIPELAGO, becauſe it is the moſt free and the moſt favoured by the government. No Turk here incommodes the inhabitants by his preſence, or conſtrains them by his authority. The iſland has magiſtrates, whom the people appoint every year; and theſe places, more honourable than lucrative, ſought after by all, are granted to thoſe only who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their probity and their attachment to their country.

Here are reckoned forty towns or villages, which, according to the regiſters of the government, contain a population of fifteen thouſand eight hundred ſouls; namely: ten thouſand Greeks, and five thouſand eight hundred Latins.

The iſland is divided into two thouſand two hundred hearths, and all the lands into four hundred and ſeventy-four thouſand and ſixty-four aſpres. The aſpre is equivalent to a ground-rent value of five piaſtres, ſo that a field valued at a hundred piaſtres, is marked twenty aſpres in the regiſters. Each aſpre

aſpre pays at the rate of two parats tax, which is levied for the account of ſome Turkiſh agas who reſide at CONSTANTINOPLE.

To complete the total amount of the ſums ſucceſſively required by the PORTE for the captain-pacha and his ſuite, and in order to provide for unforeſeen diſburſements, for the expenſes of adminiſtration and others, the inhabitants pay ſome additional parats in proportion to the aſpres which they poſſeſs.

Every ground-rent property is valued and inſcribed in two regiſters; one of which is in the hands of the Latin comptroller, and the other in the hands of the Greek comptroller.

In order that the Turkiſh agas may not ſend a tchocadar to exact and gather their duties, the inhabitants compound with them, and remit them their money with the greateſt punctuality; by this means they avoid the expenſes which that agent would occaſion, and the extortion which he would not fail to exerciſe in his double quality of Muſſulman and a perſon intruſted with power.

The total impoſt, with the expenſes, amounts annually to 36,234 piaſtres; a conſiderable ſum, in proportion to the ſmall extent of the iſland, but very moderate if we conſider its population and the induſtry of its inhabitants.

TINO, in a good harveſt, produces ſufficient barley for the wants of the year.

Wheat ſcarcely affords a ſupply for three or four months.

As

As to legumes, the inhabitants gather none but a few broad beans, and ſome chich-peas, the flour of which they mix, as at SCIO, with that of wheat to make bread.

Sheep are in ſufficient plenty to admit of being exported annually to the value of from 5 to 6000 piaſtres.

No oil is made at TINO: the olives which are there gathered are ſalted and conſumed by the inhabitants.

Wine is ſufficiently abundant, to furniſh the ſupply of the European veſſels which occaſionally anchor in the harbours and roads of the iſland.

There are figs, oranges, ſeveral other fruits and various herbage for the wants of the inhabitants: theſe laſt are ſometimes furniſhed to SCIO and SMYRNA.

Honey and wax, cotton and wool, are generally conſumed in the country.

Silk is the only article of exportation at all conſiderable. A great part of the iſland is planted with mulberry-trees, and almoſt all the women are employed in rearing ſilk-worms and afterwards in winding the ſilk off the cods. Every year are imported two or three thouſand okes of raw ſilk, generally employed for the loops and ſtrings which are made at SCIO, at SMYRNA, at CONSTANTINOPLE, and elſewhere, for trimming the dreſſes of both ſexes. At TINO, and in the CYCLADES, the inhabitants cultivate the white mulberry-tree, which they ſuffer to grow at pleaſure.

The lands of the iſland are, in general, not very fertile, except in ſome plains of no great extent and in ſome watered vallies. The inhabitants make

amends

amends for this deficiency by a perſevering labour, and an activity and induſtry far from common in the eaſtern countries. Here the rich man is not more idle than the poor man; the one is a merchant, trader, or agriculturiſt; the other, an artiſan, mariner, or labourer.

Neither do the women remain idle: they occupy themſelves with the cares of the family, with the rearing of ſilk-worms, with rural labours, and the day never paſſes without their taking the needle or the ſpindle, or knitting ſilk ſtockings, which are in requeſt among the Europeans on account of their ſolidity and the goodneſs of their wear.

The Europeans and the Greeks of SMYRNA, CONSTANTINOPLE, and SALONICA, prize highly the ſervants of TINO, eſpecially the female domeſtics, becauſe they find them, in general, more handy, more clean, and more honeſt than the greater part of thoſe of the other iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. Their number is ſo conſiderable, that every ten, twelve, or fifteen days at lateſt, there ſails, for SMYRNA, a boat loaded with young women who go to ſupply the place of thoſe who, after four or five years' ſervice, return with the intention of marrying, by means of the ſavings which they have made.

There likewiſe ſails every month a boat for CONSTANTINOPLE, and another every year for SALONICA.

The inhabitants of PYRGOS, ISTERNIA, and CARDIANI work and faſhion the marble which they have in their territory, for SMYRNA, SALONICA, and CONSTANTINOPLE. Every man gains at this buſineſs, from twenty to forty parats a day.

ANDROS

ANDROS is ſeparated from TINO only by a channel of a mile in width, into which veſſels of burden are afraid to enter, on account of the rocks and ſhoals which are there ſituated. This iſland is about ninety miles in circumference, while TINO is ſcarcely ſixty. Although it is lofty and mountainous like this laſt, it has in proportion more lands fit for cultivation; its plains are ſomewhat more extenſive, equally fertile, and as well watered. Here are to be ſeen fifty villages, and, neverthelefs, its population does not exceed twelve thouſand ſouls.

ANDROS is the appanage of a ſultana: a Turkiſh waiwode there adminiſters the police and watches over the tranquillity of the iſland. It pays about 30,000 piaſtres, as well for the duties of the ſultana, as for thoſe of the captain-pacha.

Silk is the principal produce of its territory: the quantity which is annually exported is eſtimated at ſix thouſand okes. A tolerably large quantity of oranges and lemons are alſo exported for SALONICA, ATHENS, and the MOREA. The wheat, barley, wine, and oil are generally ſufficient for the conſumption of the inhabitants. The iſland alſo produces legumes, herbage, various fruits, honey, wax, and cotton.

On the morning of the 25th of Floréal (14th of May), we ſailed from the road of SAN NICOLO, and ran and anchored in that of MYCONI, diſtant nearly twelve miles. The ground which we examined to the north and to the ſouth of the town, appeared to us entirely of granite. The iſland is far from fertile, very uneven, almoſt all mountainous, though much leſs elevated than NAXOS, ANDROS, and TINO. The town, ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, is tolerably large, and contains about four thouſand inhabitants: this is the whole population of MYCONI. The inhabitants are either mariners or cultivators. They gather barley and wine in a

 quantity

quantity ſufficiently large to export ſome every year. The other commodities are conſumed in the iſland. It pays 7,500 piaſtres by way of impoſt.

The ſame evening, we wiſhed to get under ſail, in order to proceed to DELOS. Our mariners would have preferred ſleeping at MYCONI, where they had friends, and where they found good wine, to going to paſs the night on the ſea-ſhore, or among ruins which inſpired them with no intereſt. They told us with perſeverance, that DELOS and the other deſert iſlands which lie near it, were the refuge of pirates, and that there was much to be feared if we reſolved to ſpend the night there. "Thoſe people," ſaid they to us, "do not content themſelves with ſtripping navigators; they kill "them and throw them into the ſea, in order to ſmother their crime and "not to be ſought after." This argument was, undoubtedly, very good; but ſince it was neceſſary to paſs the next day between theſe iſlands, there was no more danger in going to ſleep there that very night. "Drink," ſaid we to theſe poltroons; "another glaſs will give you courage, and let us de-"part." They aſked for half an hour in order to go and look out on the heights of the ſouth point of MYCONI, and, about five o'clock in the evening, we made ſail for Little DELOS, where we arrived before ſun-ſet.

We anchored in a ſmall harbour to the weſt of the iſland: we had ahead of us two iſlets, the Great and the Little REMATIARI, and farther on, at the diſtance of half a league, Great DELOS or the Iſland of RHENEA. We regaled our mariners with our TENEDOS wine and our TCHESME' proviſions, in order to make them amends for the pleaſures which they would have enjoyed at MYCONI: we recommended to them to keep a good look-out, and we went to take a walk before it grew dark.

The diſorder and confuſion exhibited by the ruins of a celebrated city, the veſtiges of temples, the remains of palaces, the rubbiſh of houſes, ſtrike

and aſtoniſh the traveller: his imagination ſeduces him for ſome time: he ſtill ſees ſtanding the monuments of which there remain no more than the traces under his ſteps; he takes a pleaſure in decorating and embelliſhing them. Their maſs is doubled; their ornaments are multiplied. He is ſtopped every moment: "There is the temple of DIANA," exclaims he: "here is that of APOLLO: there it is that the prieſts reſided." Farther on, he diſcovers a gymnaſium; he perceives a theatre, a portico; he meaſures the extent of a palace; he ſees mutilated ſtatues: it is the image of a god, it is the figure of a hero, it is the portrait of a benefactor. Every where pillars, capitals; every where marbles, granites, porphyries, with baſs-reliefs, and inſcriptions. He cannot embrace ſo many objects at once; he can have but one ſentiment, that of admiration.

But how melancholy are the ideas which preſent themſelves in their turn! "What barbarous hand," ſays he to himſelf, "firſt carried fire and ſword "among objects conſecrated to the veneration of mankind? What impious "wretch, with a ſacrilegious arm, durſt demoliſh thoſe temples which the "gold of nations and the piety of the people erected and embelliſhed? Who "could break the ſtatue of a beneficent god, of a hero who overthrew the "enemies of his country, of a mortal who invented a uſeful art?"

Men of feeling! caſt a glance on DELOS; behold firſt that iſland conſecrated to piety, covered with temples, ſumptuous edifices, adorned with delightful gardens. Figure to yourſelves an immenſe number of people landing from all quarters, bringing the tribute which piety offered to the gods through the organ of the prieſts: behold them giving themſelves up to joy the moſt pure, to pleaſures the moſt ſweet! Well!....all is deſtroyed! all has diſappeared! At this day, there no longer exiſts any thing but ruins, but deſerted fields, on which ſeem to grow, with regret, a few ſorry plants, a few ſtunted ſhrubs.

An iſland dedicated to immortals, an iſland which received offerings from all civilized nations, ought to have a miraculous origin. Floating for a long time at the mercy of the winds, DELOS, according to fable, was fixed by the voice of NEPTUNE, in order to receive the miſtreſs of JUPITER, who was purſued by the anger of JUNO in heaven and on earth. LATONA, under the form of a quail, brought forth APOLLO and DIANA at the foot of a palm-tree, and the venom of the ſerpent which threatened her, remained without effect, and could not endanger her life.

This iſland is not elevated like TINO, NAXOS, and MYCONI. Every where ſchiſtoſe or granitical, it exhibits no trace of a volcano, nothing that can explain, by the laws of phyſics, the wonders which the Greeks have tranſmitted to us reſpecting it. Mount CYNTHUS is, to the obſerver, no more than a hill of granite, of which it would be unneceſſary to ſpeak, did not every thing in this place bring back recollections, and deſerve to fix the looks of the man of curioſity.

On the 26th (15th of May), before we continued our route for NAXIA, we wiſhed to touch at the eaſt part of the Iſland of RHENEA: we paſſed at an early hour between the Great and the Little REMATIARI, and we landed at the place where the ground is ſtill ſtrewn with ruins and tombs *. It is well known that the Iſland of RHENEA became the place of interment of the inhabitants of DELOS, when, under the archon EUTHYDEMUS, it was conſidered as indecent that a ſacred land ſhould longer receive the dead bodies of mortals.

The Iſland of RHENEA, or Great DELOS, is by no means elevated, tolerably fertile, and very fit every where for the culture of the vine and

* A detailed deſcription of the ruins of *Delos* is to be found in the works of SPON, TOURNEFORT, and M. DE CHOISEUL, &c.

the

the olive-tree. Though it is rather extenſive, no inhabitants are to be ſeen: thoſe of MYCONI go thither to ſow the lands the moſt fertile, and feed a few flocks. In no place did we ſee the lentiſk and the turpentine-tree, ſo beautiful and ſo common. Our mariners, on landing, haſtened to cut down ſeveral of theſe trees for the purpoſe of renewing their ſtock of wood.

At one o'clock in the afternoon, we continued our route with a light breeze from the north, and, in four or five hours, we caſt anchor in the harbour of NAXIA, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the iſland, facing PAROS. This harbour, formerly capable of containing thirty gallies, was cloſed by a jetty which may be diſtinctly perceived when the ſea is ſmooth. It is at preſent ſeveral feet under water, and, nevertheleſs, the ſmall craft of the country lie there in ſafety in all ſeaſons. Ships of burden may anchor, in ſummer, off the harbour, under ſhelter of the rock, on which are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of the temple of BACCHUS*: but, in winter, navigators would not dare to expoſe themſelves there; they would, with reaſon, be afraid of being driven on the coaſt with a wind rather ſtrong from the north-weſt.

The town ſtands on an eminence by the ſea-ſide: it was defended, under the Venetian princes, by a citadel and by walls, which the Turks have, in a great meaſure, deſtroyed. The Latins, formerly maſters of the country, are all lodged within their encloſure. The Greeks occupy the part which extends to the eaſtward of the caſtle, known by the name of the *New Town*, Νειο-Κοριο.

The ancient city extended to the north, towards the fountain which bears the name of ARIADNE. There are alſo, below the caſtle, ſome remains of a

* *See* the drawing which M. DE CHOISEUL has given of it. *Voyage Pittoreſque de la Grèce*, pl. 23.

ſubterraneous

ſubterraneous aqueduct, that probably brought to the town the waters of a copious ſpring which is ſeen four or five miles to the eaſt, and which at this day ſerves to water a part of the plain of NAXIA.

ARIADNE's fountain is no more than a ſimple ſtreamlet of water, to which travellers would pay no attention, did it not remind them that this is the ſpot where ARIADNE abandoned herſelf to all the deſpair of a forſaken miſtreſs: it is from this ſhore that ſhe perceived the veſſel which was bearing her lover far away from her; it is on the brink of this fountain, where ſhe came every day to ſhed tears, and that BACCHUS, no leſs touched by her misfortunes than ſtruck by her beauty, ſucceeded in conſoling her, and in making her forget an ungrateful man.

BACCHUS had a temple at NAXOS: the gate and the foundations of it are ſtill to be ſeen on a ſmall iſland in the vicinity of ARIADNE's fountain*. A bridge, built on a ſtring of rocks, it is ſaid, joined this iſland to the large one, and permitted an aqueduct to bring thither the water neceſſary for the prieſts who inhabited the encloſure of the temple.

In digging lately the foundations of a houſe and of a ſtorehouſe towards the ſea-ſhore, to the northward of the caſtle, there was found a ſtatue of a woman, of a tolerably handſome form. The head and the feet were wanting; the body had ſuffered in ſome places, but the neck and a part of the drapery were in pretty good preſervation. We ſaw it in the court-yard among filth. The maſter of the houſe ſet on it no great value: he had been ſeveral times tempted to break it, in order to employ the pieces in the conſtruction of his houſe.

* TOURNEFORT. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. p. 219.
CHOISEUL. *Voyage Pittoreſque de la Grèce*, pl. 22.

On

On the north ſide of the iſland is found a coloſſal ſtatue of APOLLO, likewiſe imperfect, which the ſculptor appears to have abandoned anciently: it is in the neighbourhood of the quarry from which the block had been taken.

NAXOS, like the other iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, has experienced all the viciſſitudes of fortune. Too weak to be long independent, it was ſucceſſively in alliance with the Athenians, conquered and ravaged by the Perſians, tributary to the Romans, ceded to RHODES by MARK ANTHONY, afterwards ſubject to the emperors of the EAST, a long time governed by Venetian princes, and at length united to the Ottoman Empire under the reign of SELIM II.

The Naxiot have preſerved the precious advantage of being governed by their own laws and cuſtoms: they have a municipal adminiſtration, and judges of their own election. The little importance of their iſland, and its remoteneſs from the coaſt of ASIA, have not permitted the Turks to eſtabliſh themſelves there. The PORTE contents itſelf with ſending thither a waiwode to exerciſe the police, to gather the taxes, and remit them to CONSTANTINOPLE.

NAXOS, more free and more independent than SCIO, is, nevertheleſs, very far from having attained the degree of proſperity at which the latter has arrived. Trade there is not ſufficiently briſk; the culture of the lands is too much neglected, and the induſtry of the inhabitants is almoſt null. Ought we attribute the cauſe to the contempt which the nobles, poſſeſſors of the beſt grounds, manifeſt for labour, a contempt which has unfortunately reached almoſt every claſs of citizens?

Proud

Proud of their ancient nobility, poor and haughty, alike diſdaining commerce and agriculture, ſtrangers to the military art, theſe noblemen, deſcended from the firſt Italian families, ſee paſs inſenſibly, into plebeian hands, their ruinous manſions, their lands almoſt uncultivated, without thinking of repairing, by labour, the loſſes which an unforeſeen accident, or their own miſconduct, not unfrequently occaſions them.

The population of the iſland, according to the remarks which the principal inhabitants communicated to us, exceeds ten thouſand ſouls. The town contains nearly two thouſand: the reſt are ſcattered throughout forty-one villages. The taxes which it pays for the lands, the karatch, and the cuſtoms, amount to near forty purſes, or 40,000 livres (*circa* 1,666l. ſterling), excluſive of ſome diſburſements which it is obliged to make annually, when the captain-pacha is lying at anchor with his ſquadron in the harbour of TRIO, or DRIO, in the Iſland of PAROS.

The number of catholics is daily diminiſhing: there are reckoned ſcarcely ſix hundred ſettled in the town. This does not prevent them from ſtill having an archbiſhop, a coadjutor, ſix canons, a rector, and ſeveral curates. They have alſo a houſe of Lazariſts for the education of youth, a convent of Capuchins, a convent of Cordeliers, and a convent of cloiſtered nuns. The number of the Greeks, on the contrary, is increaſing, and their clergy are much leſs numerous and more rich than thoſe of the Latins. Here all religious ceremonies are performed with the greateſt pomp and the greateſt freedom. The PORTE gives itſelf little concern about what paſſes in the iſland, provided the impoſt be regularly paid, and that all bend at the ſight of the moſt inſignificant of its officers.

NAXIA would be one of the moſt agreeable places of reſidence in the ARCHIPELAGO, did not the inhabitants, too idle, pull each other to pieces, and

and did not the clergy of the two churches, too numerous for ſo confined a place, themſelves foment hatred and encourage diſcord. The ſtranger preſently perceives that the prieſts of the two religions govern this country with a rod of iron, and, without intending it, render the inhabitants more malicious than devout, more litigious, more quarrelſome, than juſt and humane.

The iſland is covered with high mountains, whoſe baſe is ſchiſtoſe or granitical. White marble and hard calcareous ſtone lie every where on the ſchiſtus, and give birth to a great number of ſprings, which water and fertilize the plains. The higheſt of theſe mountains is that of *Jupiter*, which the inhabitants call *Dia*, or *Zia*. We went thither with the agent of the Republic: it lies three leagues to the eaſt of the town. We ſaw, as we paſſed, the marble that bears the inſcription of which Tournefort has ſpoken. We penetrated into a gorge ſomewhat ſteep, and we arrived at a grotto of beautiful white marble, which many travellers have viſited, to judge from their names engraved at the entrance and in the inſide.

This grotto, which the inhabitants of Naxia regard as a ſacred ſpot, whither the Bacchants of the country come to celebrate their feſtivals and their myſteries, at this day preſents nothing remarkable. In the inſide, are to be ſeen ſtalactites, ſimilar to all thoſe of calcareous grottoes; decayed fragments in different places; ſome blocks of marble detached: on the outſide, a place extremely ſolitary, little verdure, the ſummit of the mountain of Jupiter almoſt perpendicular, a pretty ſpecies of campanula* on the clefts of the rocks; a little farther, a few oaks, and a great many trilobate-leaved maples†.

* It is repreſented by Tournefort. *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. p. 243.

† *Acer creticum.*

The upper part of the mountain is inaccessible on that side: we made the tour of it; and, after several hours of fatigue, we reached the summit, precisely at the place where NOINTEL, French ambassador at CONSTANTINOPLE, caused his name to be engraved, together with an inscription, which time has already effaced. Nothing so beautiful as the horizon which presented itself to us: we had under our eyes a bird's-eye view of the island, and distinguished the greater part of its mountains: we were made to observe *CORONO*, which took its name from the nymph CORONIS, nurse to BACCHUS. Every where fertile plains, watered vallies, villages well built, chapels in good condition, formed a contrast with whitish rocks and arid hills, and composed various pictures on which our eyes could not remain fixed, so beautiful, so imposing was the prospect of the sea and its islands.

Our looks were directed, in spite of ourselves, over a great number of islands more or less lofty, more or less extensive. To the north, we had MYCONI: beyond that we saw, to the north north-west, TINO and ANDROS; SIRA and JURA were detached below: we discovered, to the north-west, SERPHO, THERMIA, and ZEA; to the west, PAROS, ANTIPAROS, and SIPHANTO; to the south-west, ARGENTIERA, BURNT ISLAND, and MILO: NIO and SANTORIN were to the south; POLICANDRO and SIKINO to the south south-west; AMORGO and STAMPALIA, to the south-east; CALMINO and LERO, to the east; PATMOS and NICARIA, to the north-east; in short, in almost every direction, we saw some islets and some scattered rocks, which can be interesting to none but navigators.

We met with some flocks on the back of the mountain: they consisted of the little sheep of ITALY and of PROVENCE, with short and coarse wool; and of a small species of goat, of which the poor eat the flesh, but of which the rich esteem only the kids. We saw nothing more wild than the shepherds, nothing more unsociable than their women. They were very far from resembling

resembling those that formerly inhabited Mount IDA, the beautiful valley of TEMPE, or the flowery banks of the MEANDER. We had some difficulty in obtaining a few glasses of milk, of which we were much in want: we were obliged to beg for a long time, and pay beforehand. But is it their fault if they are rude and mistrustful? They have so frequently heard the Turks spoken of, that they think all men with whom they are not acquainted, are as unjust and malignant as they are.

The women of NAXIA, in imitation of those of SCIO, take a pleasure in holding in their mouth an inodorous substance which their island produces: they chew it, and turn it about in every way, as the others do mastic. The plant which furnishes it is known to botanists by the name of *atractylis gummifera:* it does not grow high, and flowers at the end of the summer.

This substance has been improperly called gum: on subjecting it to some experiments, it appeared to me rather to come nearer to resin than gum, or, to speak more correctly, it is a peculiar substance, which comes nearer to elastic gum than to any other. Citizen DESFONTAINES observed that the Arabs and Moors gather it in the environs of ALGIERS, and make it into glue; but he is ignorant of the proceedings which they employ. The root of this plant affords an aliment equally wholesome and nutritious.

The hills and rising grounds of NAXOS are covered with myrtles, arbutuses, lentisks, hypericums, savories, thorny brooms, leguminous shrubs, and several species of rock-roses, among which are to be remarked, in great plenty, that which furnishes the labdanum. The rivulets are bordered by oleanders, agnus-castuses, and plane-trees. As the season was advancing, our collection of plants was less considerable than at SCIO. We found, however, on the rocks, the shrubby Cretan pink, and a beautiful species of centaury, remarkable from its purple and very large flowers; from its downy leaves,

lyre-ſhaped at the lower part of the ſtalk, and oval at the upper part, with one or two oppoſite teeth towards their baſe. The ſcales of the calyx are ciliate, and the plant is from one foot to two feet high *.

In the eaſt part of the iſland is ſeen a mine, tolerably abundant, of common emery, which ſome Engliſh ſhip-captains purchaſe, as they paſs, at a very low price. This metallic ſubſtance would be much more ſuitable to French captains, who ballaſt with ſtones their ſhips loaded with oil or cotton.

We found in moſt of the rivulets a crab, which we met with again at ALEPPO, in MESOPOTAMIA, and in PERSIA: we ſhall give the figure and the deſcription of it elſewhere.

The ſtay which we made in the country with the agent of the Republic, afforded us an opportunity of obſerving the proceedings of the cultivators, relative to caprification. It conſiſts ſimply in placing on the fig-trees which produce only the ſecond fig, the ſpecies known by the name of *fig-flowers*, or firſt figs, which appear and ripen a month or a month and a half before the others. The ſecond figs ripen, as is well known, towards the end of Thermidor, and ſucceed each other without interruption till the end of Vendémiaire, and even later. The Greeks ſtring together ten or twelve of theſe firſt figs, and ſuſpend them in different parts of the fig-tree whoſe fruits they wiſh to fecundify. This operation, of which ſome authors, both ancient and modern, have ſpoken with admiration, appeared to me nothing more than a tribute which man paid to ignorance and to prejudices. In fact, in many countries of the LEVANT, caprification is not known: it is not at all made uſe of in ITALY, FRANCE, or SPAIN: it has long been neglected

* CENTAUREA atro-purpurea *calycibus ciliatis, foliis inferioribus lyratis, ſupremis ovato-lanceolatis, baſi appendiculatis, floribus purpureis.*

in

in ſome iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, where it was formerly practiſed, and, nevertheleſs, every where are procured figs very good to be eaten. If this operation were neceſſary, whether the fecundation were to be effected by the ſeminal powder, which might be ſcattered and introduced alone by the eye of the fig, or whether Nature, in order to tranſmit it from one fig to another, ſhould make uſe of a little cynips, as has been commonly imagined, it may eaſily be conceived that theſe firſt figs in flower could not fecundify at the ſame time thoſe which have attained a certain ſize, and thoſe which ſcarcely appear, and which do not ripen till two months after the others.

Let us leave all the marvellous of caprification, and acknowledge, according to obſervation, that it muſt be uſeleſs, ſince every fig contains ſome male flowers towards its eye, capable of fecundifying all the female flowers of the inſide; and that, beſides, this fruit may grow, ripen, and become excellent to be eaten, when even the ſeeds are not fecundified.

The inhabitants of NAXOS cultivate the vine at the foot of the riſing grounds, and in the plains which are not watered. Their wine is, in general, of indifferent quality, becauſe they make it ill, and know not how to preſerve it. This wine is all conſumed in the country: it ſeldom happens that European veſſels take in any in paſſing.

The iſland furniſhes wheat, kidney-beans, garden-beans, and a few other legumes for the wants of the year.

Barley is in much greater plenty: ten or twelve thouſand quintals are annually exported.

Oil, in a favourable ſeaſon, may amount to the value of from 30 to 40,000 livres: it is of indifferent quality.

Oranges,

Oranges, lemons, bergamot-citrons, are not ſo plentiful as they might be, becauſe there is no town ſufficiently conſiderable within reach for a great conſumption. CONSTANTINOPLE is too far diſtant: SMYRNA and SALONICA have them in their territory, and receive, beſides, thoſe of SCIO. This article procures, however, every year, from 12 to 15,000 livres.

The peaches, apricots, pomegranates, pears, plums, walnuts, almonds, and figs, are conſumed in the iſland.

NAXOS has ſheep and goats for the wants of the inhabitants, a few ſmall-ſized oxen for huſbandry, together with mules and aſſes for draught. The wool is of bad quality, like all that of the ARCHIPELAGO, and is conſumed in the country.

Cheeſe is an article of exportation ſomewhat conſiderable: it amounts to 8 or 10,000 livres: it is ſent to CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, and SALONICA.

Cotton is little cultivated: a few private perſons gather it for ſtockings, caps, and ſome coarſe cloths, which are made in the family. It is the ſame with ſilk and flax.

The honey and wax are conſumed in the iſland.

To the ſouth of the town is a ſmall ſaltern, where a few cargoes of ſalt are made for the capital. The PORTE has taken poſſeſſion of it, and farms out its produce to the cuſtom-houſe officer. The ſalt is nearly all ſold to the inhabitants, at the rate of two livres for ſixty pounds.

We were not willing to quit NAXIA without making an excurſion to PAROS, without examining its mountains of marble, without ſeeing its

harbours, without taking a look at its inhabitants. This iſland, formerly one of the moſt important of the CYCLADES, had ſtill a population ſomewhat conſiderable when it was ſubjected to the Ottoman Empire by BARBAROSSA; but it has ſuffered to ſuch a degree ſince that epoch, by the pillage of the Turks, by the deſpotiſm of the government, and by the ſtay which the ſquadron of the captain-pacha makes there every year, that its inhabitants have imperceptibly diſappeared, and that it no longer preſents at this day any thing but uncultivated fields and villages partly deſtroyed. During the war of CANDIA, the Venetians alſo greatly contributed to its depopulation, by ravaging it, and deſtroying almoſt all the olive-trees, which conſtituted its principal wealth.

PAROS had ſtill ſix thouſand inhabitants at the beginning of the century: at the preſent day there are reckoned ſcarcely two thouſand. The European conſuls have withdrawn from it long ſince; the catholics have fled, and the Greeks who remain, idle and wretched, ſee themſelves expoſed every year to the ſtick of the officers of the captain-pacha's ſquadron, to the ſword of the ſailors, to the rapacity of all.

PAROS lies two leagues to the weſt of NAXOS: its extent is not near ſo conſiderable; but it has in proportion a much greater quantity of lands fit for culture. Its mountains are leſs elevated, its riſing grounds leſs arid, and its plains would be as fertile, if they were as well watered.

The harbour of *NAUSSA*, ſituated to the north, is one of the fineſt and moſt ſpacious in the ARCHIPELAGO. Here are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of the batteries which the Ruſſians had erected for defending its entrance, when, maſters of the ARCHIPELAGO in their war before the laſt with the Turks, they had made PAROS the depot of their forces.

This

This harbour is unwholeſome in autumn and towards the end of the ſummer, on account of ſome marſhes which are ſituated at the head of it. The Ruſſian army ſuffered from them to ſuch a degree, that it was obliged to quit the place, after having loſt a great number of ſailors and ſoldiers.

There are three harbours on the eaſt ſide of the iſland: the firſt, called *Port Santa Maria*, towards the north point, is ſheltered, by ſome iſlands, from winds from the north and ſouth; but it is open to the north-eaſt, which prevents ſhips from frequenting it in winter.

The harbour of *Marmora* lies in the middle. Near there is ſeen Fort *Sant Antonio*, in which Venieri, prince of the iſland, ſuſtained for a long time all the efforts of Barbaroſſa. He gave up this important poſt only becauſe the garriſon were in want of every thing, and periſhing with thirſt and hunger.

The harbour of *Trio* lies lower down: it is, like the firſt, ſheltered by ſome iſlands, but open to ſoutherly winds. The captain-pacha remains at anchor here every year for upwards of a month, till the return of the gallies and ſmall veſſels which he diſpatches to the neighbouring iſlands, in order to collect the impoſt to which they are ſubject.

There is only one harbour to the weſtward, at the head of which the principal town is built. Veſſels of burden anchor without, under ſhelter of ſome iſlets, as well as in the narrow channel that ſeparates Paros from Antiparos.

The modern town is built on the ruins of the ancient. At this day it is no more than a wretched village, while it was formerly one of the largeſt, richeſt, and handſomeſt cities of the Archipelago; and what comes to the

the ſupport of the teſtimony of the ancient authors, are the fragments of cornices, capitals, and pillars, which are ſeen ſcattered about, or which are to be remarked in the walls of the modern houſes and churches.

Marpesus, ſituated to the weſtward of the harbour of Marmora, is the moſt lofty mountain in the iſland: this it is that furniſhed more particularly the marble which the Greeks drew from Paros. Near an ancient quarry, here is ſtill to be ſeen the baſs-relief ſketched on a rock of which Tournefort has ſpoken, and of which M. de Choiseul has given a drawing.

Antiparos, known formerly under the name of *Oliaros*, is remarkable only for the extent of its grotto, all the details of which may be conſulted in the two authors that I have juſt quoted. But ought it to be conſidered as a quarry from which marble was extracted for a length of time, or as a vaſt cavity, ſuch as naturally exiſt in moſt calcareous mountains? The ſilence of authors leaves us in ſuſpence, and the inſpection of the ſpot affords us no greater information in this reſpect.

The inhabitants of theſe two iſlands gather, for the wants of the year, wheat, barley, wine, ſeſamum, and ſome legumes. Cotton is the moſt conſiderable production, and the only one that furniſhes the inhabitants with the means of paying their impoſt, and of procuring themſelves ſuch commodities as they are in need of. Fruits and herbage would be an article ſomewhat important, did not the Turks, who anchor at Trio, frequently take poſſeſſion of them by main force, or require them at a very low price. Theſe two iſlands pay ſomething more than 8,000 piaſtres by way of impoſt.

CHAPTER VIII.

Departure from Naxos.—*Stay at* Nio.—*Productions and induſtry of its inhabitants.—Departure from that iſland.—View of* Sikinos *and* Pholegandros.—*Arrival at* Cimolis.—*Fear of the inhabitants.—Deſcription of this volcanic iſland.—Origin of Cimolian earth.—Digging in ſome ancient ſepultures.—Shooting excurſion to* Polino.—*Serpents and wild goats of that iſland.*

In the afternoon of the 20th of Meſſidor (8th of July) we ſailed from Naxia; and, in a few hours, by means of the northerly wind, which blows regularly in ſummer over the Archipelago, we caſt anchor in the harbour of Nio. The diſtance from the one iſland to the other is ſcarcely four leagues; but, from the one harbour to the other, it is reckoned at leaſt eight. That of Nio is on the ſouth ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, and that of Naxia is on the weſt, as we have already mentioned.

The town is half a league from the harbour, on an eminence: it is tolerably well built, and appears to occupy the ſite of the ancient one; for ſome remains of old walls are ſtill to be perceived in its weſtern quarter.

The iſland, anciently known under the name of *Ios*, is lofty, mountainous, and interſected by ſome vallies, and ſome plains not very extenſive: it is not near ſo fertile as Paros, and is little more than forty miles in circuit. Its baſe is every where ſchiſtoſe or granitical, and the greater part of its mountains are calcareous.

The

The population of NIO amounts to three thouſand ſeven hundred ſouls, all of the Greek church. There are at this day no more than two catholic families, including that of the agent of the French nation; which is the reaſon that public tranquillity is never diſturbed there, as in moſt of the other iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, by the underhand dealings and intrigues of the Greek prieſts, every where jealous of the protection which FRANCE grants to the Latin churches.

NIO pays to the captain-pacha near 9,000 piaſtres, including preſents and other cuſtomary expenſes. A Greek waiwode, appointed by the PORTE, is charged with the collection of the impoſt. He is alſo to keep good order, and adminiſter juſtice, conjointly with ſix primates, whom the inhabitants elect every year in a general aſſembly.

This iſland, of too little extent to be ſufficient for its own wants, has almoſt always experienced the lot of the other CYCLADES. Hiſtory would make little mention of it, if HOMER, paſſing from SAMOS to ATHENS, had not anchored in its harbour, and died there a few days after. The inhabitants haſtened to erect to him a tomb, no veſtige of which has been remaining for a long time paſt.

Moſt of the medals of NIO bear a palm-tree on their reverſe. This tree is no longer cultivated in the iſland: it is even rather ſcarce in the ARCHIPELAGO, and thoſe which we ſaw at SCIO, in CRETE, and at NAXOS, have never yielded fruits that have arrived at maturity. The climate is not ſufficiently warm to admit of it. We ſhall even remark, that the date ripens with difficulty in EGYPT, when the tree is too much expoſed to the cool ſea-breeze.

Almoſt all the inhabitants of this iſland are cultivators: very few among them are mariners or merchants: active and laborious, they turn to pretty good account a ſoil naturally far from fertile. They neglect nothing to obtain manure, and to water the grounds intended to ſupply them with herbage and fruits.

When the labours of the country are finiſhed or interrupted, the women employ themſelves in ſpinning the cotton which they gather, and in knitting ſtockings and caps which they ſell to their dealers, or to ſtrangers who land on the iſland. We never appeared in the ſtreets without ſeeing women running up from all quarters, who came to offer us ſome, and who frequently fatigued us by the perſeverance which they diſplayed in getting us to purchaſe them.

This love of work enables the inhabitants of Nio to diſcharge the impoſt with punctuality, and procures to all a competence which one would not imagine them to enjoy at firſt ſight. Here, as well as throughout the Ottoman Empire, long and unfortunate experience has taught the tributary ſubjects, that they muſt not exhibit too much comfort, ſtill leſs make a diſplay of wealth: not only would the taxes be preſently increaſed, but the cupidity of ſome officer of the Porte might not be ſatiated except by the ruin of all the inhabitants. The Turks, indeed, allow the *infidels* to live, provided they ſuffer to be ſnatched from them every thing that exceeds the firſt wants of life.

The iſland furniſhes wine, not only to all its inhabitants, but alſo to thoſe veſſels which anchor in the harbour.

In a good ſeaſon are gathered as much as fifty thouſand okes of oil, of indifferent quality.

The

The wheat, barley, and legumes, are generally ſufficient only for the conſumption of nine or ten months.

Every year are exported, for ANCONA and VENICE, from eight to ten thouſand okes of cotton, independently of a great number of ſtockings and caps, which paſs into ITALY and into the BLACK SEA. There are likewiſe made ſome cotton cloths, which are conſumed in the iſland.

A ſmall quantity of wax and honey is exported.

Here are bred four hundred ſmall-ſized oxen, ſix thouſand goats, and three hundred ſheep. Cheeſe is an article of importation of little importance.

We ſtaid but three days at NIO: a ſmall Raguſan veſſel being on the point of departure for ARGENTIERA, we determined to embark on board of her, and repair with her to that iſland. We ſet ſail on the 24th of Meſſidor (12th of July) at break of day, with a light breeze from the ſouth-eaſt, which permitted us to get to windward as much as was neceſſary for paſſing to the northward of *SIKINOS*. A calm afterwards detained us upwards of three hours a mile from that iſland, till the north wind, which blew, as uſual, about nine o'clock in the morning, allowed us to purſue our route.

SIKINOS lies ſeven or eight miles to the weſt-ſouth-weſt of NIO. This iſland is lofty, mountainous, of ſmall extent, and contains, as we were informed, but two hundred inhabitants. It has no harbour, and is little frequented at the preſent day by Europeans. Its productions conſiſt of wheat, barley, wine, cotton, and fruits. It pays about 2,000 piaſtres to the captain-pacha.

We

We prefently perceived, three or four leagues to the fouth, POLICANDRO, formerly *PHOLEGANDROS*, an ifland a little fmaller, and fomewhat lefs productive, than SIKINOS. A moment after, we difcovered the little defert ifland formerly called *LAGUSA*, and by the modern Greeks *CARDIOTISSA*, fituated nearly at an equal diftance from SIKINOS and POLICANDRO. Five or fix leagues to the northward we left SIPHANTO, formerly known under the name of *SIPHNOS*; and we anchored in the road of ARGENTIERA about four o'clock in the afternoon, in fix fathoms water. Our mariners let go but one anchor, and carried a mooring to the fhore, as the anchorage is very fafe in fummer, and as it is, befides, fheltered in all feafons by *BURNT ISLAND*, which lies two miles off. (See *PLATE VI.*)

In the evening we repaired, with the captain, two fervants, and two failors, to the village fituated on a height, a mile from the coaft. We were greatly furprifed, on our arrival, to find the inhabitants under arms, and above all to fee them level their pieces at us, in order to prevent us from advancing. We inquired after the French agent, an old feaman, whom the nation has placed here to ferve as a pilot to the fhips of war which enter the ARCHIPELAGO. They then interrogated us; and, on our anfwers, warfare was no longer in queftion. The primates laid afide their arms, came to us, apologized, and not only invited us to enter their town, but alfo offered us every thing that might lay in their power.

We were not long in difcovering the caufe of this general alarm: our unexpected appearance at the town about fix or feven o'clock in the evening, in numbers which fear doubled, tripled perhaps, had made the unfortunate inhabitants apprehend the return of the robbers who not long fince had come to plunder them.

We

We were informed that twenty Mainots had ſurpriſed them on a holiday, hile they were drinking and diverting themſelves; and that, after having ſecured the ſmall number of men in a condition to defend themſelves, they had entered ſucceſſively into all the houſes, and had thence carried off the moſt valuable effects: they had puſhed their cruelty ſo far as to torture, in a thouſand ways, the old men, the women, and the children, in order to make them confeſs the place where their money was concealed. This ſcene of horror laſted a whole night. The veſſel which had brought theſe Mainots, ſet ſail the next morning without the inhabitants of ARGENTIERA, who were unarmed, being able to do any thing more than deplore their melancholy deſtiny, and to addreſs prayers to Heaven that theſe robbers might be ſwallowed up, with all their booty, by the foaming billows.

The Mainots, or Magnots, are Greeks who inhabit the ſouth part of the MOREA, the environs of SPARTA, and more particularly the part which extends from MISITRA to Cape MATAPAN. Feeble remains of the Lacedæmonians, they are as ardent as their anceſtors in defending their liberty, and in maintaining their independence. The Turks have ſometimes obtained a trifling tribute from them, without ever having been able to ſubdue them entirely. Cultivators or ſhepherds, mariners or pirates, according to wants and circumſtances, they are always ready to quit the ſmall towns which they occupy on the Gulfs of CORON and of COLOKYTHIA, for the purpoſe of penetrating into the interior of the country, and eſtabliſhing themſelves on the mountains.

With this energy, and this love of liberty, one regrets to ſee among them robbers, who, not content with making war on the Turks that have unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed them of a part of their territory, alſo go ſometimes to plunder the unfortunate Greeks of the ſmall iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO,

whom a ſame intereſt and a ſame religion ſhould rather unite againſt their common enemies.

Argentiera, anciently known under the name of *Cimolis*, received the name that it bears at this day on our charts, from a mine of ſilver, which is ſaid to have been worked a long time with ſucceſs. In the intention of ſatisfying our curioſity in this reſpect, we queſtioned the agent of the Republic, the primates, and ſome of the inhabitants. They all anſwered us, that they had, indeed, heard the old men ſpeak of it, but that the thunder-bolt which had fallen on it, had no longer left any traces of it. The reſearches which we made on this ſubject, during our ſtay in the iſland, were fruitleſs: we ſaw nothing that had the ſmalleſt appearance of a mine; ſo that we ſhould doubt its exiſtence, if the awkward anſwer of the inhabitants had appeared to us dictated only by the intereſt which they have in concealing it from the Turks, who would be tempted, perhaps, to work it, if it came to their knowledge; which would attract them to the iſland, and be a perpetual cauſe of extortion.

The hiſtory of this iſland is confounded with that of Milo, whoſe lot it has always followed, and to which it is, beſides, very near. It is little more than eighteen miles in circumference, and its population is two hundred ſouls. Arid, mountainous, and volcanic, neither plains, vallies, nor watered lands, are to be ſeen throughout its whole extent; nor any thing, in a word, that can render it an abode in the leaſt agreeable to the inhabitants. Some ſcattered vines, very few olive and mulberry trees, a great many uncultivated lands, very few which are fit for the culture of barley, wheat, and cotton: this is what Argentiera at firſt preſents to the eye of the traveller; but the trace of the ſubterraneous fires which have acted on it, ſometimes with ſlowneſs, ſometimes in a violent manner, merit, no doubt, to fix for a few moments the attention of the naturaliſt.

The

The town is ſituated on a rock of red porphyry, very little changed by the action of fire. The texture of this porphyry is hard, and yet ſuſceptible of a tolerably handſome poliſh; but the felſpar, which is diſſeminated in it in little white points, is partly decompoſed. In the environs are found other porphyries of a bright green and of a dark green, not ſo beautiful nor ſo hard as the preceding. To the weſt and to the ſouth of the town are ſeen every where rocks of porphyry, white or reddiſh, more or leſs decompoſed. That which has attained the laſt degree of decompoſition, is friable, ſoft to the touch, and by no means ponderous: it is eaſily divided in water, and appears to have on linen and on cloths the properties of the beſt fuller's earth. It is this which the ancients knew and diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Cimolian* earth, or earth of CIMOLIS *.

Mariners who land on this iſland, as well as the inhabitants, make uſe of this earth by way of ſoap, and obtain from it the ſame reſults. They prefer, however, that which is taken from the bottom of the ſea, in the road itſelf, becauſe it is more pure, diſſolves more quickly in water, and gets the dirt out of linen much better than the other †.

* Citizen VAUQUELIN, member of the National Inſtitute, a very diſtinguiſhed chemiſt, to whom I communicated a ſpecimen of this earth, analyzed it. Out of one hundred parts he found:

1. Silex - - - - -	79 parts;
2. Alumine - - - -	5
3. Lime - - - - -	4
4. Muriat of ſoda - - -	2
5. Water - - - -	10
Total	100

† This yielded to Citizen VAUQUELIN, out of a hundred parts:

1. Silex - - - - -	68
2. Alumine - - - -	20
3. Muriat of ſoda - - -	5
4. Water - - - -	7
	100

The

The Cimolian earth, taken from the rock which I have juſt mentioned, preſents, when broken, the portion of trap diſtinct from felſpar. There are ſeen in it a few ſpiculæ of black ſchorl, not decompoſed; and what leaves no doubt reſpecting the origin of this rock, is, that it may be traced through all the alterations which it has undergone, from the beautiful red porphyry, almoſt entire, to the laſt ſtate of decompoſition of which I have ſpoken.

No rock here appears overthrown by the action of fire; thoſe which are cleft at a great depth, on a ſloping ground, are always in a great maſs, and never preſent ſtrata nor banks; while, in the other parts of the iſland, to the north-weſt, for example, every where are ſeen regular ſtrata, fragments of rocks of various nature, more or leſs altered, and mixed with volcanic aſhes, ſolid or porous lava. Here are to be perceived ſtrata of pumice-ſtones, the greater part of which are in duſt.

It is very evident that a part of the iſland has been formerly changed by the ſlow and imperceptible action of ſubterraneous fires, or by the vapours which they have raiſed, as we ſhall preſently ſee at Milo, and that the other has been covered by the ſubſtances which a volcano has ejected and depoſited in regular ſtrata, as is in like manner to be ſeen at Milo, and particularly at Santorin.

The day after our arrival at Cimolis, the primates conducted us upwards of half a league from the town, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, to a place in the vicinity of the ſea, where we perceived fragments of bricks and potter's ware, which would have ſufficiently indicated to us the poſition of the ancient town, if tradition, among the inhabitants, could have left us any doubt in this reſpect. On a bank of lava of a yellowiſh gray, which would, at firſt ſight, be taken for a clay loaded with ſaline ſubſtances, we ſaw about forty ditches dug beſide each other, and a little farther, on a hillock of

the ſame nature, other ditches, which appeared to us to have been recently dug: the latter contained charcoal, human bones burnt, and fragments of earthen veſſels. On one of the ſides of this hillock was a ſquare opening, which led us to a grotto, where we found four ſimple ſarcophagi of unequal ſize, of a white porphyric lava, ſomewhat hard, and yet eaſy enough to be hewn. Their lid was wanting; but they were, in other reſpects, in tolerably good preſervation: they were five or ſix feet in length, by two or two and a half in breadth. The grotto had the form of a long ſquare, fifteen feet in depth, before which was a ſquare veſtibule eight feet in width.

This diſcovery gave us the idea of having the earth dug above the hillock, in the places where the ground echoed under our feet, and appeared not to have been moved. Our attempt was ſucceſsful: the firſt ſtrokes of the ſpade procured us ſome rude figures of baked earth, in rather bad preſervation, ſuch as a toad, a ſphynx, and a cock, as well as a ſmall vaſe with a handle, in the Etruſcan ſtyle. As it was late, and we had with us only one man whom the primates had had the civility to order to come from a neighbouring field, we reſolved to confine ourſelves for that day to our firſt trials, and to return the next day with twenty workmen, in order to turn up all the hillock, and endeavour to diſcover ſome catacomb, into which no one had penetrated before us.

The captain of the veſſel on board of which we had come to CIMOLIS, prevailed on us to embark in his boat; which ſaved us from the diſagreeable neceſſity of going on foot or of riding, as the day before, on aſſes which neither had bridles nor halters, and on which had been put, by way of ſaddles, very inconvenient pack-ſaddles, furniſhed with four longitudinal pieces of wood, ſuch as we had ſeen in almoſt all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

When we had doubled the cape the neareſt to MILO, about eight o'clock in the morning, the north wind, which was contrary to us, and a ſea a little too rough for a common boat, obliged us to land near this cape, in a place where we found, at ſome toiſes above the level of the ſea, a ſtratum of earth containing foſſil ſhells, half decompoſed, of the genus *Perna*, ſimilar to thoſe of PIEDMONT, drawn by LANGIUS, the analogy of which is not known to naturaliſts. Theſe ſhells are very thick: the two valves are frequently found together, but almoſt always broken and in bad condition.

As it was already late, we quickened our pace, in order to diſpoſe, as ſoon as poſſible, of our labourers, according to the plan of digging that we wiſhed to execute. We cauſed ſome to clear away the earth from a catacomb which we ſuſpected to find at a little diſtance from that which we had ſeen the day before. The others dug on the hillock itſelf where we had already found ſome figures.

The catacomb being entirely laid open, we ſaw, at the extremity, nothing but a ſarcophagus cut in the bank of lava, and a vaſe of coarſe potter's ware, with a narrow neck, which was broken through the awkwardneſs of one of the labourers. Thoſe who were at work on the hillock, dug in ſeveral ditches, to the depth of three feet, without finding any thing but aſhes, coals, ſome remains of bones, and fragments of earthen veſſels of every form and every ſize. We regretted exceedingly, among others, a large brown vaſe, in the Etruſcan ſtyle, on which were ſeveral figures of men painted red. We made ſome farther attempts in the environs without diſcovering any thing intereſting.

On the following days, we learnt that all this ground had been dug repeatedly, at one while by the inhabitants of the iſland, who thought to find there treaſures buried by their anceſtors; at another, by ſome traveller, whom curioſity

curiofity had, like ourfelves, brought into the ifland. Citizen FAUVEL, whom we faw a few years after at ATHENS, told us that he had alfo had people to dig in various places at CIMOLIS, by order of M. DE CHOISEUL, then ambaffador at CONSTANTINOPLE; which had procured him fome pieces of coin, and fome ornaments for the ufe of women.

Independently of tradition, of the fepulchres, and of the fragments of brick and potter's ware, which indicate, in an inconteftable manner, the fite of the ancient town, there are on the coaft, in this place, works fomewhat confiderable: cuts, canals in the bank of lava, probably for the purpofe of affording a paffage to boats; and caves for fheltering them from the rain and fun. Two or three hundred toifes from the fea, are feen caverns dug by the hand of man in a ftratum of pumice-ftone, which, in all probability, have been places of habitation, or interment, at different epochs which hiftory has paffed over in filence. We fhall frequently have occafion to fpeak of fimilar caverns in the courfe of our travels, and to prefent our conjectures on that fubject.

The inhabitants of this ifland are fo diftreffed, that they have very often fome difficulty to pay 15 or 1600 piaftres impoft which the captain-pacha levies annually on them. Cotton is almoft the only article that produces them any money. The women are employed, during the whole year, when the labours of the country permit, in fpinning cotton with a wheel, fometimes with a diftaff, and in knitting ftockings for the Europeans. Mariners find, in all feafons, hogs, poultry, and eggs, to be purchafed for the fupply of their veffels; they alfo find fometimes pleafures which detain them too long in the roadftead, and make them forget their duty as well as the intereftS of their owners.

The

The dreſs of the women (*See Plate XI.*) is as remarkable in this iſland as in almoſt all the Cyclades: the petticoat does not reach the knee; the ſhift ſcarcely comes to the middle of the leg, and diſplays a wide pair of breeches faſtened on the one hand to the waiſt, and on the other below the knee: the legs are covered with two pairs of ſtockings, ſtuffed in ſuch a manner that they appear ſwelled. The neck is concealed under a corſet quilted and ſtiffened with whalebone; a piece of velvet, ſattin, or cloth, trimmed with gold or ſilver net-lace, or ſet off by a ſimple embroidery, adorns their whole front; and, in their gala dreſs, two wide ſleeves are fixed to the corſet, and fall on each ſide to the middle of the thigh. In ſummer, all the arm is covered only by the ſleeve of the ſhift. The head is enveloped with a handkerchief, which paſſes under the chin, and leaves fully expoſed to view a face not unfrequently handſome.

Polino, commonly known under the name of *Burnt Island*, preſents the ſame organization as Cimolis. Every where are ſeen porphyries decompoſed, rocks white or reddiſh; every where traces of the volcano which has acted on it and on the neighbouring iſlands. Situated to the ſouth-eaſt of Cimolis, and to the eaſt north-eaſt of Milo, it is by no means extenſive, but deſert, and entirely deprived of water. Although it is covered with graſs and ſhrubs, the inhabitants of Cimolis dare not ſuffer their flocks to graze there, becauſe they are perſuaded that the ſerpents, which are there very numerous, would ſoon occaſion their death; and, nevertheleſs, they acknowledge that there are to be found in Polino wild goats, which multiply abundantly, and brave the venom of thoſe reptiles.

It was intereſting to know whether there were in fact wild goats in that iſland, and whether the ſerpents, which were there to be met with, were as dangerous as the inhabitants of Cimolis told us. We reſolved, in conſequence,

ſequence, to make a ſhooting party on the 27th of Meſſidor (15th of July), and to take with us two Greeks that were pointed out as very capable of ſeconding us. The primates announced to us jeſtingly, that there exiſted among them a law, by which no one could ſhoot on POLINO without their permiſſion, and without delivering to them, on their return, half of the game. "We willingly ſubmit," ſaid we to them, "to this law; we will "keep nothing but the ſkin of the quadrupeds that we ſhall kill, and we "will give you all the reſt." This, as will preſently be ſeen, was *counting the chickens before they were hatched.*

Citizen BRUGUIÈRE, little accuſtomed to the fatigues of ſuch a ſhooting party, contented himſelf with herborizing, and with picking up a few ſeeds and ſome land-ſhells, while I ſeveral times traverſed the moſt rugged places of the iſland. My guides, like two dogs, hunted every where, examined all the rocks, ran into all the buſhes, and diſplayed an ardour worthy of better ſucceſs. Indeed, they put up ſome of the quadrupeds which we were in queſt of, but I never could get at them: frequently even I could not ſee them among the rocks which they inhabit. I more than once diſcharged my piece at them loaded with ball, from a very great diſtance, without doing them any injury. In theſe pretended goats, I thought I recognized the *argali**, which is known to be common in CRETE, in NAXOS, and in all the ſouth of EUROPE.

Our chace after ſerpents was more ſucceſsful: I cut one in two by a muſket-ball: towards the evening, our guides caught another of a different ſpecies, which belongs to the genus *Boa* of LINNÆUS; but we could not diſcover the viper for which we were looking, and which is to be found in more or leſs plenty in all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

* *Capra ammon.* LINN.—*T.*

The

The boa, (*Plate XVI. fig. 2. A. B.*) has a cylindrical body, of a yellow gray, marked with a number of irregular blackiſh ſpots. The head is oval, and obtuſe; the ſnout is formed by a triangular ſcale, broad and ſhort; the two ſcales which come next, are likewiſe broad and ſhort: thoſe which cover the body, are ſmall, round, equal, almoſt hexagonal, and ſmooth: the abdominal ones, to the number of one hundred and ſeventy-two, are ſhort and narrow. The eyes are ſmall and ſunk in the head. The tongue is forked, and the under lip is rounded. The tail is obtuſe and very ſhort. The caudal ſcales are twenty-two in number*.

The mouth of this boa is not provided with fangs; which muſt occaſion it to be placed among the ſpecies which are not venomous.

* Boa turcica *griſeo-flaveſcens, cauda breviſſima, ſcutis dorſalibus minimis rotundatilis ſub hexagonis.*

CHAPTER

CHAPTER IX.

Arrival at Milo.—*Description of that island.—Its volcano, its grottoes, its mineral waters.—Situation of the ancient town.—A number of catacombs which are to be found in its environs.*

We departed from Cimolis on the 28th of Messidor (16th of July) with the boat destined to keep up a communication with Milo, and to convey persons who repair rather frequently from the one island to the other. In an hour and a half, we landed in the quarter called *Apollonia*, where mules, which the primates of Cimolis had bespoke of those of Milo, had been waiting for us for some time. The passage is about two leagues, though the distance is not a mile between the nearest points of the two islands.

The coast on which we landed, presented to us a tolerably solid bank of yellowish earth, strewn with three species of fossil echini, with petrified terebratulæ, and with several fragments of shells. In the environs, were pumice-stones and various lava. Grottoes, dug by the hand of man, are rather common on this coast, and seem to indicate that there were formerly habitations in this part of the island: they have been formed, as at Cimolis, in a stratum of pumice-stone easy enough to be worked.

It took us upwards of three hours to reach the town by a bad road Every thing that offered itself to us was volcanic. We saw every where porphyries more or less decomposed, white earths, somewhat similar to those of Cimolis; gray lava, ponderous, and in large masses: we perceived in

ſome places indications of ſmall-grained iron-ore, and veins of ponderous ſpar, mixed with a red earth: we croſſed hills uncultivated, dry, and arid: we went into a gorge of rather rapid deſcent, where enormous rocks of lava, ſuſpended over our heads, threatened every moment to bury us by their fall. We at length diſcovered a tolerably handſome plain, in the midſt of which was a town which, a ſhort time ſince, was not inferior to any other of the ARCHIPELAGO; but which, at this day, ſcarcely preſents any thing but ruins.

On entering it, we were ſtruck at ſeeing on all ſides houſes fallen in, men bloated, conſumptive faces, ambulating corpſes. Every where the image of deſtruction and of death offered itſelf to our eyes. Scarcely do forty families, the greater part foreigners, drag on their unfortunate exiſtence in a town which ſtill reckoned five thouſand inhabitants within its walls at the beginning of the laſt century.

TOURNEFORT had diſcovered, in 1700, that the air of MILO was unwholeſome, and that the inhabitants were very ſubject to dangerous diſorders; but this inſalubrity of the air muſt have increaſed very much ſince that epoch, either through the effect of the ſtagnant waters which lie between the town and the head of the harbour, or through the pernicious exhalations which are inceſſantly riſing to the eaſt and to the ſouth, from a ſoil acted on by ſubterraneous fires. To theſe cauſes of infection and mortality, may be added the bad quality of the well and ciſtern waters of which the unfortunate inhabitants of this iſland are obliged to make uſe.

Although this was not the moſt unwholeſome ſeaſon of the year, we had, nevertheleſs, been apprized of the danger that there was in ſleeping two or three nights in the town; which determined us to go that very evening to the

the monaſtery of St. Marino, *Ayia Marina*, ſituated at a little diſtance from Mount St. Elias.

We proceeded for half an hour in the part of the plain which extends from the town to the ſea; we paſſed along ſome marſhes, and a ſaltern of little extent; we followed the ſteep ſhores of the ſouth coaſt of the harbour; we afterwards croſſed a ſmall arid plain, formerly cultivated, ſtrewn with fragments of pumice-ſtone; then gaining higher ground, and ſtill following a weſterly direction, we ſaw banks of white, volcanic earth, ſomewhat ſimilar to thoſe of Cimolis, which were ſucceeded by conſiderable ſhelves of granites charged with vitreous points. The whole ground is covered with little grains of glaſs, which detach themſelves from theſe granites with tolerable facility.

The traces of the road were not very eaſily diſtinguiſhed, ſo rugged and uniform was the ground: our mules had ſome difficulty to keep their feet on it. It was curious to ſee theſe animals get over the worſt paſſes without ever ſtumbling. Sometimes almoſt erect on their crupper, they ſpring forward on lofty rocks, almoſt perpendicular, and ſometimes they deſcend ſteep declivities, if not with the ſame agility, at leaſt with the ſame preciſion. The only danger that you have to run, in making uſe of theſe animals, proceeds leſs from them than from their conductors. The latter, accuſtomed to prick them with a ſpur with which their ſtick is armed, cannot preſent themſelves on one ſide without the frightened animal wiſhing to ſpring on the other. In whatever ſituation you may happen to be, theſe conductors are ſo inattentive, ſo heedleſs, that, frequently ſpurring their mules unſeaſonably, they are the cauſe of their wincing on the brinks of the precipices which you have under your feet, and occaſion to the rider a fright ſtill greater than the danger.

We were advancing acrofs thefe accumulated rocks: we had on our right the harbour, whofe extent we were completely meafuring; beyond, the village of *Castro*, or *Sifours*, feated on the fummit of a lofty, pyramidal hill. Before us, Mount St. Elias fhewed itfelf almoft entirely to our eyes*. We croffed another bank of very hard and very ponderous lava, of a blackifh gray, after which we found ourfelves on an earthy foil, whence we difcovered the monaftery where we had refolved to pafs the night.

A quarter of a league from the monaftery, we faw a beautiful gypfum extracted from a ftratum of deep earth, mixed with volcanic afhes, fragments of pumice-ftone, and puzzolana. This earthy ftratum extended to a confiderable diftance, and, in feveral places, exhibited excavations from which plafter-ftone had in like manner been extracted at different periods.

The friars received us very well, and treated us in their beft manner. In their houfe we drank very good water, as well as excellent wine; and though they live poorly all the year, and fubfift generally on cheefe, olives, fnails, legumes, and fruits, we found there poultry, eggs, herbs, and delicious honey: at the fame time they fet before us oranges, apricots, plums, and grapes. Under their roof one may eat excellent mutton, lamb, and kids. The milk there is very good, game abundant, and what is better, no doubt, the air, in this part of the ifland, is very pure and very wholefome. The ruddy face of thefe caloyers manifefted fufficiently that the noxious exhalations of the plain could not reach them.

The next morning, at fun-rife, we went to take a walk with the fuperior round the monaftery. We faw paffing fome oxen, which were going to graze

* It is much farther to the weft than it is laid down on the chart of M. de Choiseul.

on the ſtubble. A flock of ſheep was browſing on the circumjacent mountains, and at the ſame time a tolerably great number of goats were on their way to the neighbouring woods. The barley and wheat had been cut for a long time; a part was already trodden out and put by; the other was ſoon to follow it. We traverſed ſome vineyards, ſome orchards of olive-trees, and ſome fields covered with cotton. The grapes were beginning to turn black, the olive-trees appeared loaded with fruit, and the cotton promiſed a good crop.

On receding from the cultivated fields, we again found every where volcanic productions, and nearly the ſame plants that we had ſeen in the other iſlands; the prickly prinpinella, thymes, creeping wild thymes, ſavories, rock-roſes, arbutuſes, myrtles, and lentiſks. We collected ſome ſeeds and ſome land-ſhells, after which we returned home. The ſuperior carried us into the garden: ſome friars, in order to water it, had repaired thither as ſoon as it was day-break: it was ſpacious, and kept in tolerably good order: a part was planted with orange-trees, lemon-trees, cedrats or bergamot citron-trees, fig-trees, and ſeveral other fruit-trees; the other part was intended for garden-ground.

It was time to breakfaſt and depart. There was ſerved up to us a kid ſtuffed with meat and bacon cut ſmall, with pine kernels, raiſins, and rice: next was brought a pilau made with a very fat hen, then honey, preſerved ſweet-meats made of bergamot-citron, and the ſame kind of fruits as the day before. We were regaled with delicious white wine and excellent coffee. We would willingly have paſſed a few months with theſe worthy friars, had we not had other countries to ſee, other regions to traverſe. We took leave of them when we had viſited their church, and left in the baſin wherewith to remunerate them for the civilities which we had received.

It required upwards of three hours for us to arrive at the town where we wiſhed to ſleep, as well for the purpoſe of obſerving the aluminous grottoes of the environs, as of repairing to the volcano of *Calamo*, of which no traveller, I believe, has made mention. We paſſed this night, as well as the following, in a ſpacious chamber, where we evaporated by degrees, over hot aſhes, ſome very good vinegar, which we had brought from the monaſtery of St. Marino. This precaution always proved fortunate to us, when we were obliged to make any ſtay in marſhy and unwholeſome countries. Had we not neglected it at the moment when we were on the point of beholding again our natal land, death, perhaps, would not have ſurpriſed us; I ſhould not, perhaps, have to regret, at this moment, my fellow-traveller and the beſt of my friends.

On the 30th of Meſſidor (18th of July), we repaired to the mountain of *Calamo*, ſituated to the ſouth ſouth-weſt of the town. It is not very lofty, and the road leading to it is leſs rugged than that which we had travelled the preceding day. When we quitted the plain, we found lands uncultivated, volcanic, and mixed with fragments of pumice-ſtone: they appear to have been abandoned recently, to judge of them from the houſes half-deſtroyed which are there met with, and the ſtone-vats in ruins which are to be found in moſt of the fields. This excurſion took us an hour and a half. Before we arrived at the ſummit, we were apprized of the vicinity of ſome volcanic apertures by the odour of ſulphur, which all at once ſtruck our olfactory nerves.

A little below the conical ſummit of this mountain, is perceived a rent of a hundred paces in extent, which has been effected in the middle of a rock of heavy, ferruginous lava; it is flat, and covered with a ſaline cruſt, which echoes under the feet, and in which you ſink ſometimes to the middle of the leg. There are ſeen ſome crevices, whence iſſues a very fetid ſmoke; and

and in whatever place you dig, the heat is ſo powerful, that it would be impoſſible to hold your hand there at the depth of a foot. If you remove the cruſt, you ſee ſulphur ſublimated into yellow ſpiculæ, ſo eaſy to be broken, that you cannot preſerve them.

There alſo riſes ſome ſmoke from the cleſts of the neighbouring rocks. A few paces from this ſpot we found another mouth, which preſented to us incruſtations of a hard white matter, ſimilar to Cimolian earth, more or leſs charged with alum. We ſaw there others, at a little diſtance, preſenting the ſame ſubſtances: preſently we were ſurrounded by ſmoke-vents. We ſaw around us different openings, whence iſſued a ſmell ſo ſulphureous and fetid, that we could ſcarcely breathe. The heat of the ground was very ſenſibly felt: we both ſunk at the ſame moment, and we thought ourſelves ſwallowed up. Neither ſervants nor guides had dared to follow us. We were aware of our imprudence, and we haſtened to leave the place.

We do not imagine that we diſcovered all the openings by which the ſmoke eſcapes; but we are well aſſured that the mountain is conſiderably heated towards its ſummit; that this heat, which is burning in certain places, is very moderate in ſome others, and that it is, in general, more perceptible wherever there is any conſiderable rent or fiſſure. A particularity which we remarked, is that the ſummit of the mountain preſents a ſchiſtoſe ſtratum of about a toiſe in thickneſs, which has not experienced the action of fire.

We amuſed ourſelves in ſcratching up the earth in ſeveral places; and we found, at the depth of a few inches, a white earth, warm and moiſt, which may be kneaded at pleaſure: it is of the ſame nature as Cimolian earth,

earth, and, like it, exhibits trap ſtill diſtinct from felſpar *. We thruſt down our canes every where with the greateſt facility, and without ever finding the ſmalleſt obſtacle. It is not to be doubted here that Cimolian earth is a decompoſition of the rock of porphyry itſelf, ſlowly attacked by heat and the ſaline and ſulphureous evaporations which riſe from the boſom of the mountain.

We ſaw, a little lower, ſtrata of different nature, lava ponderous and ferruginous, fragments of pumice-ſtone, ochreous earths mixed, gray volcanic aſhes, very fine and very light, which made us conjecture that the exploſions which have taken place at the ſummit, are very ancient, and that they may be dated, perhaps, from the period when MILO, CIMOLIS, and POLINO, were at the ſame time ſubject to the action of the ſame ſubterraneous fires. The decompoſition which the lava of CALAMO has experienced, is already in a very advanced ſtate, and reſembles that which is to be remarked in every part of the iſland. The upper ſtrata are, in a great meaſure reſolved into an earthy ſtate. Gypſum has already been formed in ſome of theſe ſtrata, and thoſe which ſtill have any ſolidity, are very ferruginous, and little different, as to appearance, from the ſcoriæ of iron.

We returned to dine at MILO; and, in the evening, we went to viſit the quarter where is formed plumoſe alum, of which the ancients and

* The analyſis of this earth gave Citizen VAUQUELIN, on a hundred parts:

1. Silex	66
2. Alumine	20
3. Oxyde of iron	1
4. Lime	4
5. Muriat of ſoda	2
6. Water	6
Loſs	1
	100

moderns

moderns have equally ſpoken. It is a quarter of a league from the town, in nearly an eaſterly direction. At a diſtance are perceived the great banks of whitiſh earth, in which ſeveral openings have been made at different periods for the extraction of alum; but ſeveral of them have been cloſed, or have fallen in of themſelves, owing to the bad manner in which the mines have been worked, and there is but one at preſent into which a perſon can enter. It is very probable that the grotto mentioned by TOURNEFORT, no longer exiſts at this day, ſince the deſcription which he gives of it, cannot agree with that into which we ourſelves entered.

Its opening is two feet ſquare: it is ſituated at the foot of a ſteep declivity, on which we found cryſtals of gypſum grouped, of a particular form, which Citizen HAÜY has named *gypſe laminiforme* (laminated or plate gypſum). After having pulled off our coats, and lighted our tapers, we ſlid down a ſlope obſtructed partly by detached earth. The grotto afterwards riſes and grows wider, and, as you deſcend lower, the heat becomes ſtronger and ſtronger. We placed a thermometer at the bottom to aſcertain the degree of it, and we employed ourſelves very quickly in examining the ſides of the grotto, in order to get out of it with all expedition; for we experienced ſome difficulty in breathing, although our tapers conſtantly gave us a very bright light.

All the inſide appears to be nothing but a white, friable earth, ſtrongly charged with alum. The ſides are clothed with a ſaline cruſt more or leſs thick: in different places are to be remarked cryſtals of gypſum, called *gypſe aciculaire* (acicular gypſum) by Citizen HAÜY, united or grouped in beautiful white ſpiculæ, eight or nine lines long. There are alſo to be ſeen ſaline laminæ under a different form, and which, at firſt ſight, reſemble very fine carded cotton, that might have been, as it were, glued againſt the walls of the grotto. The microſcope ſhews very ſmall ſpiculæ of alum,

 diſpoſed

diſpoſed in various directions. If you detach this ſaline cruſt, it eaſily breaks, and exhibits very looſe filaments, united in bundles from one to ten, twelve, or fifteen lines in length. This is what the ancients and the moderns have called *alumen plumoſum*, or plumoſe alum: ſome of the ſame is found in a few of the volcanoes of ITALY; and, according to PLINY, ſome formerly came from EGYPT.

Plumoſe alum is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the cryſtals of gypſum which are in the ſame grotto, not only by ſimple inſpection, the one being in the form of needles, and the other in very looſe filaments, cloſely confined, but alſo by putting them on the tongue: theſe laſt are inſipid, while the other has a taſte of alum, which is ſenſibly perceived.

We remained not more than five minutes in the grotto: we came out of it bathed with ſweat, with an extreme want of breathing the open air. After reſting a few moments, I went to fetch the thermometer which I had placed at the bottom: it indicated thirty degrees of heat.

The inhabitants told us, that all the part ſituated to the eaſt, and to the ſouth of the town, is hot to a certain depth. They ſpoke to us of grottoes, whence there iſſues ſmoke, and of others where is found a liquor extremely acrid and ſalt, of which TOURNEFORT gives ſome details. Alum makes its appearance every where, while ſulphur ſhews itſelf only in a few places.

On the firſt of Thermidor (the 19th of July), we went to ſee the public baths called *LOUTRA*, ſituated at the bottom of a riſing ground near the highway which leads from the town to the roadſtead. You enter by ſtooping into a natural grotto, and you arrive by two narrow, difficult paſſages, at a ſpacious hall, where you find a baſin of hot water ſtrongly charged with alum

alum and marine ſalt. Theſe two ſalts are united and cryſtallized throughout the inſide of this hall. Although it is very hot there, we, nevertheleſs, breathed without any great difficulty, and we think that a perſon may paſs a few hours without ſuffering, either in this natural vapour-bath, or in the water of the baſin.

The Greeks formerly flocked from all the CYCLADES to make uſe of theſe waters, in moſt diſorders of the ſkin, as well as in rheumatiſm and palſy. Theſe baths were alſo for a long time frequented by perſons affected with any venereal complaint. They are nearly deſerted ſince the iſland has loſt its population, and ſince the harbour ſcarcely receives any more ſhips.

A hundred paces from this ſpot is found, on the ſea-ſhore, towards the place where the country-barks caſt anchor, a very copious ſpring of hot water, which iſſues from different places, and ſome portions of which are ſeen to ſpout out even into the ſea. It is ſo hot that a perſon cannot hold his hand in it, and its extremely acrid flavour announces that it is ſtrongly impregnated with alum and marine ſalt, as well as the preceding.

On quitting theſe ſprings, and directing our ſteps to the north, we gained the heights, and, after half an hour's walk, we arrived at the opening of four very ſpacious grottoes, which now ſerve as a retreat for flocks. At firſt are perceived the traces of a conſiderable depreſſion of the earth, which has taken place at their entrance, and which has diſcovered the part that ſerved them as a veſtibule. There are ſtill to be remarked the traces of the ſtaircaſe which afforded the means of deſcending thither, and the walls of the interior preſent ſquare cavities, clothed with cement, which one would imagine to have been intended for containing water. The rock is gray, volcanic, porous, and appears to have been half-vitrified. On the right face of the firſt grotto, is ſeen a gallery five or ſix feet high, by about three

wide, which admits of deſcending by ſeveral diviſions into the inſide of the ſubterraneous cavern. As you proceed, you find, to the right and left, chambers from eight to ten feet ſquare, the uſe of which it is difficult to divine. This firſt gallery is not always ſtraight: ſometimes it runs winding, ſometimes it riſes in an oblique line, and ſometimes it communicates with other galleries dug three or four feet lower; which ought to be carefully remarked by thoſe who entangle themſelves in theſe places, for they would run the riſk of getting dangerous falls if they went without precaution, and without, as it were, feeling their way.

We had for ſome time been examining theſe gloomy windings, with a flambeau in our hand, when we were ſtopped all at once by a wall in maſonry, which had probably been erected for the purpoſe of intercepting all communication with the reſt of the cavern. It required a ſledge hammer and a great deal of time to make a hole and ſurmount this obſtacle. The road roſe behind this wall, and conducted us to a large chamber which communicated, on its right, by a door, with another room of the ſame ſize, and by four ſquare openings, made in the thickneſs of the intermediate partition. Theſe laſt are at the height of two feet: they are dug in the form of a trough or rather of a manger, and the angles of the jams have been pierced as if for the purpoſe of paſſing through them the halter of the animals that might have there been tied up to eat.

On the ſides of theſe two chambers, are to be remarked projections in the form of brackets, which ſeem to have been intended for ſupporting lamps for lighting them. There are likewiſe ſeen niches of different ſizes, the intention of which appears to have been to receive ſome piece of furniture or ſome articles of daily uſe. We made many more turnings and windings, and we came out of this ſubterraneous cavern with the perſuaſion that it has ſerved as a place of habitation to men at a period, perhaps, when the inhabitants

bitants of the iſland, few in number, were obliged to conceal themſelves, in order to avoid pirates or enemies who threatened their property and their life.

In this cavern, we experienced no other heat than that of all cellars: we there ſaw no trace of alum: every where the walls were very dry, and we breathed there with the greateſt facility.

After having in vain made ſome attempts to learn from our guides, whether there were in the environs other grottoes or other ſubterraneous caverns worthy of remark, we continued our route in order to proceed to *Castro*, commonly called *Sifours* by the Provençal mariners, who have imagined that they found ſome reſemblance in the elevated poſition of this village, with that of the ſame name which lies in the environs of Toulon.

We ſaw a few lands cultivated, and many others which might with advantage be ſo, if the inhabitants were more numerous. We ſoon got on higher ground, and we reached the foot of the peak on the ſummit of which the village is built. Here the road is made acroſs rocks of baſaltes, ſlippery and almoſt inacceſſible, which ſeem always on the point of detaching themſelves in fragments. The village is dirty. The ſtreets, or rather the ladders of rocks which form the diviſions of them, are alſo dirty, covered with hogs and filth. No other than ciſtern water is to be found, and the ſmalleſt wind reſembles a hurricane. But all theſe diſadvantages are compenſated by the ſalubrity of the air that is breathed on this lofty peak. Among the old men that we ſaw there, one of them, a hundred and two years of age, enjoyed good health: his ruddy look and his ſupple and muſcular limbs ſtill announced ſeveral years of life.

The

The women of this village employ themſelves the whole year in knitting cotton ſtockings for the uſe of the country, and for that of the Europeans: they alſo make ſome coarſe calicoes for themſelves. The men cultivate the earth, or are mariners. Among them are reckoned fifteen pilots, for the ARCHIPELAGO and for SYRIA, who are employed by the ſhips of war belonging to the European powers that navigate theſe ſeas.

From this elevated ſpot, the eye reaches without obſtacle over a vaſt extent of ſea, and over ſome iſlands ſituated in the north part. It is ſaid, that, when the horizon is clear, you can even perceive, to the north-weſt, the mountains of the MOREA. You have a view of almoſt all the eaſtern-part of MILO. To the ſouth you diſtinguiſh all the windings of the roadſtead, and you have then before you an amphitheatre of hills and mountains clothed with verdure, and crowned by Mount ST. ELIAS, the moſt lofty point of the iſland.

When you have for ſome time enjoyed this majeſtic picture, the eye becomes fatigued; you wiſh to deſcend into the plain, and ſee near at hand, and in detail, other objects. On the 2d (20th of July) at break of day, on directing our route towards the roadſtead, we found to the ſouth ſouth-weſt of CASTRO, after half an hour's walk, ſome ruins which we judged to be thoſe of the ancient capital of the iſland. They extend to the environs of the ſea, towards the cape deſignated by ſeamen under the name of *BOMBARDA*. They conſiſt of a few portions of the walls of the town ſtill ſtanding, and ruins of ancient edifices which appeared to us to have belonged to temples, and laſtly of an encloſure of large high walls in dry ſtones, conſtructed in ſo ſubſtantial a manner, that they are in much better preſervation than thoſe built with mortar. In theſe walls have been employed blocks of a ſolid lava, irregularly cut, but the angles of which correſpond to each other

other with ſo much preciſion, that their junction forms an aſſemblage ſtriking from its ſimplicity and ſolidity.

In the middle of this encloſure riſes a natural hill, on whoſe ſummit there is at preſent a church of caloyers, which we conceive to have been built on the ruins of a temple. Independently of the ancient materials employed in the conſtruction of this modern church, there are ſtill ſeen ſome beautiful and entire pillars of granite, half buried in the ground, and ſome others ſmaller, but broken. In different places are perceived veſtiges of ancient habitations, fragments of brick and potter's ware, excavations made in the rock, the greater part of which, ſtill arched, and coated with cement, appear to have been ſo many ciſterns.

The ſite of the ancient town, called *Clima* by the modern Greeks, has neither been viſited by Tournefort, by M. de Choiseul, nor by any other traveller, ſince not one of them have ſpoken of it; chance led us thither, and to it too are we indebted for the diſcovery of the ſepulchres which are ſituated to the eaſt of theſe ruins.

After having paſſed a deep ravine, the hill which we met with was formed of a light white ſtone, partly vitrified, and ſomewhat ſimilar to pumice-ſtone. Here it was probably that the inhabitants of Milo had dug their burying-places at an epoch which is unknown to us. Whoever has ſeen the catacombs in the environs of Alexandria, will here diſcover the ſame genius and the ſame taſte which planned the former. Among them are to be found ſome, which entirely reſemble certain chambers of the catacombs of Egypt, where are ſeen pillars cut in tufa, façades ſculptured round ſarcophagi, and even garlands painted on the cement with which they were coated on the inſide. But thoſe of Milo are, in general, ſmaller than thoſe of Egypt, and we met but with one in this quarter, which was diſtri-

 buted

buted into ſeveral chambers, all ſo diſpoſed as to terminate at a common veſtibule.

As you proceed along the hill, the catacombs become more numerous. Some are ſeen in a few ſteep places, ſeveral rows the one above the other, and ſome are perceived even on the declivity of the oppoſite mountain; but you muſt ſtill go a little farther, and on the very top of the hill, in a place called TRYPITI*, in order to be aſtoniſhed at their number, their proximity, and the advantage which the inhabitants had found means to derive anciently from this ſituation, incapable of producing any thing, in order to make of it the aſylum of the dead.

You deſcend eight or ten ſteps by an aperture two feet wide, and you find yourſelf in a chamber twenty-five or thirty feet long, by eight or ten wide, and eight or nine high. Each of theſe catacombs generally contains ſeven ſarcophagi, three on each ſide, and one alone at the further end; but this was not an invariable rule, ſince, out of the number, we met with ſome, where there were but five ſepulchres, two on each ſide, and one at the further end; others, much ſmaller, where three only could be reckoned; and ſome, indeed few in number, where the ſepulchres were to the number of eight, two of which were at the farther end of the chamber.

Here the places of the dead did not conſiſt in cells deeply dug into the walls of galleries, as are ſeen in the catacombs of ALEXANDRIA, but in real ſarcophagi of five feet and a half or ſix feet in length, and of a foot or fifteen inches in depth, ſurmounted by an arch, the whole dug in the rock.

* From τρῦπα, which ſignifies hole.

We

We perceived Greek characters traced on the ſpace which lies between the top of the arches and the beginning of the roof: but we were unable to decypher them, ſo much were they effaced. We doubt not that perſons more experienced than we were in reading inſcriptions, and who ſhall employ in this reſearch the time neceſſary, may there diſcover intereſting particulars, read perhaps names known in hiſtory, and find at leaſt the period at which the Greeks of MILO wiſhed to preſerve the remains of thoſe whom death had juſt taken away.

We ſaw ſeveral families ſettled on theſe catacombs: they inhabit huts, and apply themſelves to the culture of the lands which are ſituated below. They avail themſelves of the winter rains to fill with water the greater part of theſe ſepulchral chambers, and diſtribute it, during the ſummer, according to the wants of the ſoil. We ſaw a cultivator employed in deſtroying the ſtaircaſe of one of theſe catacombs, which he was going to transform into a ciſtern: a ſecond was taking away the earth from another, in the ſame intention. A third was making at the foot an outlet, which he was at liberty to open and to ſhut at pleaſure. But in all caſes, whether theſe catacombs were deſerted, or whether they were converted into ciſterns, they all had ſtill the ſarcophagi which we have juſt mentioned.

We were aſſured, in the country, that ſometimes, in clearing out theſe ſepulchral chambers, there were found urns of earth, vaſes, and other utenſils of the like nature; yet, whatever reſearches we made, it was out of our power to procure any. Some of thoſe to whom we addreſſed ourſelves, told us that they had given or ſold ſeveral to the Ruſſians, in the war before the laſt with the Turks.

If we conſider the prodigious number of theſe catacombs, by the ſide of the ruins which occupy a rather great extent; if we pay attention to

the walls built with ſolidity, to the pillars and to the pieces of marble and granite which evidently belong to temples and ſumptuous edifices; if we reflect on the advantageous poſition of the town within reach of the roadſtead, on an elevated promontory, far from the infections of the plain and the dangerous vapours of the eaſt and ſouth part of the iſland, we cannot forbear to admit that it was formerly the ſite of the capital.

Melos, according to Thucydides, was independent, and enjoyed the greateſt liberty, long before the Peloponneſian war, in which all Greece, the iſlands of the Archipelago, and the principal towns of the weſt coaſts of Asiá Minor, had alike taken part. The inhabitants of Melos, ſtrongly ſolicited by the Athenians on the one hand, and, on the other, attached to the Lacedæmonians, from whom they deſcended, wiſhed, in the midſt of this terrible war, to remain quiet, and obſerve a wiſe neutrality. The Athenians were ſo irritated at this conduct, that they diſpatched Nicias with a fleet of ſixty ſhips, and two thouſand land-forces, to puniſh them for the refuſal which they had made to furniſh their quota of troops. Nicias ravaged the iſland; but he could not, with ſo feeble an army, ſucceed in taking the town, which was defended by all the inhabitants aſſembled.

The Athenians, ſome time after, ſent two other generals, who were not more ſucceſsful than Nicias, although their army was more numerous; but Philocrates having brought freſh troops, the Miliots were reduced to the greateſt extremity, and obliged to ſurrender. The Athenians, on this occaſion, no leſs implacable in their reſentment than ferocious in their vengeance, indiſcriminately maſſacred all the men in a condition to bear arms, and made ſlaves of the women and children, whom they carried away to Attica.

The

The iſland was re-peopled by five hundred perſons whom they ſent thither, and to whom they gave the property of thoſe that they had juſt murdered. In the mean time the Athenians, conquered in their turn by LYSANDER, general of the Lacedæmonian troops, and obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, found themſelves forced to recall their colony, and the unfortunate remains of the Miliots were then enabled to return to their iſland, and to put themſelves again in poſſeſſion of the property that had been taken from them.

This iſland, like all thoſe of the ARCHIPELAGO, paſſed under the domination of the Romans; it afterwards made part of the empire of the EAST. MARCO SANUDO united it, with all the CYCLADES, to the dutchy of NAXOS. It was then detached from it in favour of FRANCESCO CRISPO, and at length ſubjected to the Ottoman Empire of BARBAROSSA.

MILO is about ſixty miles in circumference: its harbour, one of the fineſt and moſt ſpacious of the ARCHIPELAGO, can contain a numerous fleet: it has, like that of NAUSSA, in the Iſland of PAROS, the inconvenience of facing the north; which is the reaſon that a ſhip can with difficulty get out of it, becauſe the wind, in theſe parts, conſtantly blows in ſummer, and very frequently in winter, from that quarter. Although the anchorage is every where good, veſſels, in the winter ſeaſon, prefer ſheltering themſelves from the north wind behind the promontory, near which we have ſaid that the ancient town was built. Near the entrance of the harbour are ſeen ſome rocks of baſaltes, againſt which the waves break with impetuoſity and a dreadful roaring. The ſmall deſert iſland, called ANTI-MILO by mariners, is to be remarked a few miles to the north-weſt, and appeared to us volcanic like that of MILO.

The whole population of the iſland amounts not at the preſent day to five hundred perſons, and this number would diminiſh daily, did there not come annually from the MOREA unfortunate people whom diſtreſs occaſions to emigrate, and whom the culture of the lands attracts to MILO. The captain-pacha has ſome difficulty in levying at preſent 2500 piaſtres by way of impoſt.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER X.

Return to Cimolis.—*Departure from* Santorin.—*Description of that island.—Formation of its roadstead and of the three islands there situated.—Industry of the inhabitants.—Productions.—Impost.—Natural history.—Extent of the roadstead and depth of the sea.*

In the morning of the 3d of Thermidor (21st of July), we departed from Castro, very well satisfied with having preserved, on a pestilential island, that health which was so necessary to us for the continuation of our travels. We went to the shore of Apollonia, and embarked for Cimolis, where we preferred remaining till we could find an opportunity of repairing to Santorin. That very evening we were so fortunate as to hire a boat belonging to Sikinos, the crew of which were known to the inhabitants of Cimolis, and the honesty of whose captain was warranted to us by the primates.

This precaution is not to be neglected in the islands of the Archipelago, and even throughout the Levant, where every one may navigate without papers, without patents, or without commissions. An European traveller would be highly imprudent, were he to embark here with mariners for whom no one would be responsible: he would run a risk of falling into the hands of some pirates or of some villains, who would not fail to plunder him, and to throw him overboard, as soon as a favourable opportunity should offer.

We

We ſet out early on the 4th (22d of July), and rowed along the weſt coaſt of CIMOLIS, in order to get to windward as much as poſſible, waiting for the north wind to ſpring up. The ſea was ſmooth, and the ſky clear and ſerene. Our ſailors, pulling at the ſame time, ſang the exploits of the pirate LAMBRO, while we were obſerving the rocks of CIMOLIS, and the windings of that elevated coaſt. About nine o'clock they ſet the ſails, and ſhaped a courſe towards the ſouth point of SIKINOS. At two o'clock in the afternoon, we were to the ſouthward of that iſland, and in the evening, before ſun-ſet, we anchored in the little harbour of *SAN NICOLO*, ſituated towards the north point of SANTORIN (*PLATE VII*). The diſtance from CIMOLIS to SANTORIN is fifteen or ſixteen leagues. Immediately on our arrival, we took a boat to go to *PHIRA*, in order to wait on the Latin biſhop, for whom we had brought letters from NAXOS.

Nothing more frightful than the violent convulſion which has taken place over all the interior coaſt of *THERA*, *THERASIA*, and *ASFRONISI*; nothing more aſtoniſhing than the formation of the roadſtead, and of the three iſlands which have iſſued from the bottom of the ſea at known periods. The coaſt of SANTORIN, nearly a hundred toiſes in elevation in ſome places, preſents itſelf like a perpendicular mountain, formed of various ſtrata and of different banks of volcanic ſubſtances. There has been ſome difficulty in making a practicable road for aſcending from the ſea to *APANOMERIA* and to *PHIRA*. Every where elſe it would be impoſſible to climb up a coaſt riſing ſo ſuddenly and ſo inacceſſible.

On landing under PHIRA (A), we ſaw ſeveral ſmall veſſels moored to the rocks of the coaſt: we remarked a conſiderable bank of roſe coloured puzzolana, in which have been dug very extenſive ſtorehouſes in order to facilitate the exportation of the wine that the iſland produces. We obſerved, in aſcending, ſeveral ſtrata of volcanic aſhes, gray or bluiſh; banks of pumice-

pumice-ſtone of a blackiſh gray, intermixed with fragments and blocks of baſaltes. We afterwards perceived different ſtrata of puzzolana of a bright red; a rock of baſaltes on which are to be diſtinguiſhed pumice-ſtones and volcanic aſhes variouſly coloured; laſtly, a very thick ſtratum of white pumice-ſtone, which extends over the whole ſurface of the iſland, and which is likewiſe found on THERASIA and on ASPRONISI. It took us near half an hour to aſcend from the ſea to the village.

Under APANOMERIA, the ſtrata are nearly ſimilar to thoſe which we have juſt mentioned, except that, towards the middle of the coaſt, there is to be remarked a conſiderable bank of puzzolana of a beautiful red and of an excellent quality, which extends, at the ſame time diminiſhing in thickneſs, to the right and to the left, and which is found again in the ſame direction on the eaſtern coaſt of THERASIA.

The Latin biſhop, named *DALENDA*, received us with much politeneſs, made us ſhare his table, lodged us conveniently, procured us all the information that we wanted, and even carried his complaiſance ſo far as to deſire his nephew to accompany us in the different excurſions which we undertook in the iſland.

The next day after our arrival, we viſited all the north part. We went to *PHIRO-STEPHANI*, and to ME'RE'VELLI. We turned out of the road to ſee SCAURO, ſituated on a very lofty, volcanic rock, which advances into the ſea. This is the ſee of the Latin biſhop: here he generally paſſes the winter, and comes to PHIRA only in the ſummer. SCAURO was tolerably well fortified and ſufficiently peopled when the iſland belonged to the Dukes of NAXOS. The inhabitants are at this day abandoning it by degrees, in order to eſtabliſh themſelves at PHIRA and at PHIRO-STEPHANI, two villages which appear likely to be ſoon united and form but one. From this

ſpot

ſpot we went to Little St. Elias, a hill ſcarcely higher than the ground on which Scauro and Me're'velli are ſituated.

The ſtratum of white pumice-ſtone which covers the whole iſland, is wanting in this ſpot: either the rains have carried it away, the ground being on a ſlope in the north part, or this hill has been the focus of a volcano a long time after the formation of this ſtratum; which is much more probable. In fact, in the upper part of Little St. Elias are to be perceived different apertures through which the ſubterraneous fires have eſcaped, and the ſubſtances that they have thrown out. All round are here ſeen blackiſh ſcoriæ ſimilar to droſs of iron, and a hard, ſpongy ſtone, of a beautiful ferruginous red, which extends along the coaſt as far as Scauro. Towards the foot of the hill, we found the ſame kind of puzzolana as we had ſeen the day before below Apanomeria; and as it was nearly of the ſame height, we judged that it belonged to the ſame bank.

On the following days, we viſited, both by ſea and by land, the ſouth part of the iſland as far as the point of Acrotisi. The coaſt, here as well as in the north part, is every where lofty, perpendicular towards the roadſtead, and formed of various volcanic ſtrata, nearly ſimilar to thoſe which we had remarked below Phira. The ground lies more or leſs on a ſlope from this coaſt to the other, and is every where covered, as we have ſaid elſewhere, with ſeveral toiſes of worn down pumice-ſtone, on which has been formed a little vegetable earth. Mounts St. Stephen and St. Elias tower above all the land of Santorin, and though lightly covered, in ſome places, with the ſame ſort of pumice-ſtone, it is ſeen that they have not experienced the action of fire. They are entirely calcareous, and formed of a whitiſh marble, of a rather bad quality.

What we ſay of THERA or of SANTORIN, likewiſe applies to THERASIA: this laſt, like the other, is covered with ſeveral toiſes of pumice-ſtone: its coaſt is lofty, and perpendicular towards the roadſtead, and the ground lies on a ſlope to the oppoſite coaſt. ASPRONISI, formerly AUTOMATE*, is not ſo lofty, but it is, like the other two, rent internally and covered with ſeveral toiſes of pumice-ſtone, whence it has obtained the name of *WHITE ISLAND*, which it bears at preſent†.

After having viſited with the greateſt attention THERA, THERASIA, and ASPRONISI, and convinced ourſelves that theſe three iſlands, at a remote epoch, muſt have formed but one; and that there has taken place a ſudden and violent depreſſion which has divided them, it remained for us to ſee whether the three iſlands of the road preſented an organization different from the other three. We employed a whole day in this examination, and we had reaſon to be ſatisfied in ſeeing that, even had not hiſtory told us any thing on this ſubject, theſe iſlands carry with them the ſtamp of the period of their formation.]

From PHIRA we deſcended to the little harbour which is ſituated at the foot of the coaſt (A). There we took a boat, and went to land on Little *KAMMENI*, called *MICRA CAÏMENI* by the Greeks. The diſtance from the harbour to the iſland is reckoned two miles. It is of a conical form, and is ſeparated from the other only by a very narrow channel, in which boats and veſſels ſometimes moor.

* *Thera, cum primum emerſit; calliſte dicta. Ex ea avulſa poſtea Therasia; atque inter duas enata mox Automate.*—PLIN. Hiſt. Nat. lib. iv. cap. xii.

† From ασπρο, white, and from νησι, iſland.

On this iſland nothing is ſeen but volcanic aſhes, blackiſh or reddiſh, which have run in all directions, and have iſſued from the crater that is diſcovered on the ſummit. Among theſe aſhes are ſome fragments of baſaltes, and there is already to be perceived a commencement of vegetation; among others may be remarked a little fig-tree and ſome gramineous plants.

New *Kammeni*, *Nea Caïmeni*, is upwards of a mile in length, and preſents a frightful aſpect when it is viewed near at hand. It is entirely ſtudded with blocks of black baſaltes, broken, ſharp on their edges, and irregularly heaped up. We landed in a ſmall cove (B). The waters there are of a greeniſh yellow: they have loſt their tranſparency, ſo much ſo, that we could not perceive the bottom at the depth of a foot. The colour of the waters, in this place, is diſtinguiſhed very well from Phira, eſpecially when the ſea is ſmooth. A few yards from the ſhore is a little moraſs (C), where the waters are more coloured than in the cove. As they cannot be renewed there in the ſummer, they exhale an odour ſo fetid, that we had like all at once to have fainted: we got away very quickly from ſo infectious a ſpot, and we wiſhed to attempt to penetrate into the interior of the iſland; but all our efforts were fruitleſs; it was impoſſible for us to walk on theſe ſharp-edged maſſes of baſaltes, without running the riſk of having our feet cut, and our limbs broken at every ſtep.

To the eaſt of the moraſs is a conical eminence, on which are ſtill perceived the different mouths whence iſſued fire at the time of the formation of the iſland. It is covered with volcanic aſhes of various colours, worn down baſaltes and pumice-ſtone, on which vegetation is juſt beginning to eſtabliſh itſelf. The reſt of the iſland is leſs elevated, and neither preſents earth nor aſhes, nor any ſort of plant.

Though

Though the waters of the cove and of the moraſs, of which we have juſt ſpoken, are ſtrongly coloured by exhalations and ſubſtances which are probably detached from the bottom; though this place is very certainly the focus of a volcano, which, perhaps, will, ere long, manifeſt itſelf by ſome freſh exploſion, the waters, nevertheleſs, did not appear to us hot: true it is that we had it not in our power to judge of them but by the contact of the hand. We had left our thermometers at PHIRA. We likewiſe remarked on the weſt coaſt of *HIERA* ſome receſſes where the water appeared in like manner ſlightly coloured; and on almoſt all the ſhore of theſe three iſlands is ſeen a ferruginous ſubſtance which is depoſited there, and which tinges the ſtones of a beautiful deep red.

The iſland *HIERA* or Old *KAMMENI* is upwards of a mile in length; like both the preceding, it appears to be nothing but a maſs, without regular ſtrata, of volcanic ſubſtances, and particularly of rocks of baſaltes. It is covered with a little earth mixed with pumice-ſtones and volcanic aſhes, which has given riſe to the vegetation that has there been long eſtabliſhed. This iſland is deſert and uncultivated. In the ſummer only aſſes and mules are ſent thither to graze. We think that the vine and the olive-tree would grow there tolerably well, and that ſeveral families might live there on the produce of the land. There is not as yet any trace of vegetation on the part marked (D): it is leſs elevated than the reſt of the iſland, and evidently appears of more modern formation. It is nothing but fragments of baſaltes, on which no earthy ſtratum is yet formed, and the period even of this muſt be remote, unleſs ſome freſh exploſion cover again theſe rocks with volcanic aſhes which may promote vegetation.

On HIERA, are remarked clefts ſomewhat conſiderable, which take the direction of its length, and extend almoſt from the one extremity to the

other. They have, no doubt, been occaſioned by the earthquakes which have very frequently taken place in theſe countries.

It is time to ſpeak of the formation of the three volcanic iſlands that are ſituated in the road of SANTORIN, the periods of which are tolerably well marked, either in the ancient, or in ſome modern authors.

TOURNEFORT has not ſufficiently well obſerved that the two iſlands THERASIA and ASPRONISI muſt have made part of the large one, and that the two KAMMENIS, the Old one and the Little one, which exiſted in his time, appear, even at firſt ſight, of more modern formation than the others. THERASIA, on which PTOLEMY places a town, and which PLINY conjectures, with reaſon, to have been detached from THERA, cannot be taken for ASPRONISI, nor the latter for the former, as TOURNEFORT imagines. ASPRONISI is not conſiderable enough for there ever to have been on it the ſmalleſt little village, the ſmalleſt habitation; while THERASIA has ſufficient extent, and its territory is ſufficiently good to have been always the ſite of a town, as one is ſtill to be ſeen there at the preſent day. TOURNEFORT adds that THERASIA always bore the name of *HIERA*. The poſition, according to authors, of the Iſland of HIERA, between THERA and THERASIA, leaves no doubt, and demonſtrates that TOURNEFORT is miſtaken. Beſides the inhabitants of SANTORIN, whom we muſt conſider as authority in this caſe, ſtill name thoſe iſlands as we have marked them on the chart, the one *THERASIA*, the other *ASPRONISI*, and the third *PALAIA-CAÏMENI*.

HIERA or the Sacred Iſland was dedicated to the gods of hell, becauſe it had been ſeen to iſſue all on fire from the bottom of the ſea through the effect of a volcano. PLINY ſays that this event took place one hundred and thirty years after that which had ſeparated THERA from THERASIA. M. DE

CHOISEUL

CHOISEUL affirms, according to Father HARDOUIN, that there is a mistake in the dates, and that it was not till forty years after that the Island of HIERA made its appearance.

BRIETIUS says that in the year 47, there arose all on a sudden from the bottom of the sea, near THERA, a small island which had not yet been seen*.

In the year 196, before J. C. says JUSTINUS, there was seen to issue after an earthquake, an island between THERA and THERASIA, which was called *SACRED*, and which was dedicated to PLUTO †.

DION CASSIUS mentions the sudden appearance of a small island near that of THERA, during the reign of CLAUDIUS. SYNCELLUS mentions it in the forty-sixth year after J. C. and places it between THERA and THERASIA. But it appears that, some time after, there arose another island called *THIA*, which disappeared or was united to the *Sacred* Island. Mention is made of it in PLINY ‡, in THEOPHANES §, and in BRIETIUS ||.

* *Hoc anno (Christi 47) juxta Theram insulam, parva insula ante non visa, repentè apparuit; mare enim hoc Ægeum in hac parte sui, fertile fuit novarum insularum subindè ex fundo æquoris erumpentium.* BRIET. *ann. mund. Venet.* 1692. vol. ii. p. 63.

† *Eodem anno, inter insulas Theramenem et Therasiam, medio utriusque ripæ et maris spatio terræmotus fuit in quo cum admiratione navigantium, repentè ex profundo cum calidis aquis insula emersit. Huic Sacra nomen est quæ vota Plutoni. Annus vero* 196 *ante Christum.* JUST. lib. xxx. cap. iv.

‡ *Et in nostro ævo Thia juxta eandem Hieram nata.* PLIN. lib. iv. cap. xii.

§ *Sub Leone Isaurico iconomacho refert Baronius: inter Theram et Therasiam cycladas insulas, primo vapor ut ex camino ignis visus est ebullire ex profundo maris per aliquas dies, qui paulatim incrassatus, et dilatatus totus igneus apparuit, postea vero petrinos pumices grandes et cumulos quosdam transmisit per universam minorem Asiam et Lesbo, et Abydum maritimam Macedoniæ, adeò ut etiam tota superficies maris iisdem contegeretur. In modo autem tanti ignis, nova repentè insula ex terræ congerie facta insulæ quæ* Sacra *dicitur, copulata est.*

|| *In Ionio mari, inter Theram et Therasiam, erupit ignis è mari, quem secuta ingens vis pumicum, et tanta, ut totam Ægei maris faciam impleret; ac deniquè indidem emersit insula ex terræ congerie facta, quæ sacræ insulæ copulata est. Qui maris locus semper fœcundus in historiis legitur.* BRIET. page 236.

Nothing

Nothing remarkable afterwards happened till 1427, when a freſh exploſion produced a rather great and very diſtinguiſhable increaſe to the Iſland of HIERA (D), mention of which is made in ſome Latin verſes engraved on a marble at SCAURO, near the church of the Jeſuits*. In 1573, was formed, after a freſh exploſion which laſted for ſome time, the Little KAMMENI, ſuch as we ſee it at the preſent day. Father RICHARD, a Jeſuit, ſays that, in his time, there were ſeveral old men in SANTORIN, who had ſeen that iſland formed in the middle of the ſea, and that they had, on that account, named it MICRA CAÏMENI, *LITTLE BURNT ISLAND*.

When TOURNEFORT viſited SANTORIN at the beginning of the laſt century, the New KAMMENI was not yet in exiſtence: it was not till ſome years after, from 1707 to 1711, that it iſſued by degrees from the boſom of the ſea, after various earthquakes. Every increaſe that this iſland received, was announced by a dreadful noiſe, and followed by a white ſmoke, thick and infectious. The whole was terminated by a ſhower of fragments of baſaltes, pumice-ſtones, and aſhes, which were ſpread to a great diſtance. The details of this memorable event are reported at length, either in the journals of the times, or in a Latin pamphlet made on the ſpot by a Jeſuit prieſt.

If the reader reflect on the conſiderable changes which the Iſland of SANTORIN has experienced through the effects of a volcano that acts on it from a very remote period, he will remark in them four principal periods, very

* *Magnanime franciſce heroum certiſſima proles*
Vides oculis clades, quæ mira dedere
Mille quadrigentis Chriſti labentibus annis.
Quinquies undenis iſtis jungendo duobus
Septimo calendas decembris murmure vaſto
Vaſtus Therafinus immanis ſaxa camenæ
Cum gemit, avulſit, ſcopoloſque è fluentibus imis
Apparet, magnum gignet memorabile monſtrum.

diſtinct

diſtinct from each other. At the firſt period the iſland was limited to Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS, as far as the environs of PIRGOS and of MESSARIA, the only places that are not *volcanized.* The ſecond was the formation of the reſt of the iſland as far as THERASIA and ASPRONISI. The roadſtead then did not exiſt, and the iſland was as large again, of a rounded or oblong form: the ground roſe in the form of a *calotte* more or leſs irregular at its ſummit, commanded at one of the extremities by Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS. The third period was the ſudden and extraordinary depreſſion which took place in the middle of the iſland, whence has reſulted the roadſtead. The fourth and laſt period, is the formation of three iſlands which have ſucceſſively iſſued from the bottom of the ſea. Perhaps, there will one day be formed others; perhaps, all theſe iſlands will be united to each other, and all the ſpace which the roadſtead occupies, will again be filled up. It is impoſſible to foreſee all the changes that may take place as long as the volcano which exiſts at SANTORIN, ſhall be in activity.

We ſay that there was a period when this iſland was leſs conſiderable than it has been in the ſequel. In fact, if we conſider that the three iſlands which form the road, are entirely compoſed of ſubſtances vomited forth by a volcano, diſpoſed in ſtrata and in banks, correſponding to each other, we ſhall be inclined to believe that all theſe ſubſtances thrown out from the bottom of the ſea, have formed an iſland nearly circular. And then if we remark around the roadſtead the coaſt which is perpendicular a great way into the ſea, is it not evident that there has been in the ſequel a ſudden depreſſion of a great part of the iſland which went to occupy the voids that the anterior exploſions muſt have formed? This depreſſion by occaſioning the circular rending which is to be remarked all round the roadſtead, formed of a ſingle one, theſe iſlands known in antiquity by the names of THERA, THERASIA, and AUTOMATE. Even though the ancient authors had not tranſmitted nearly the period at which the Iſland HIERA iſſued from the bottom of the

ſea, even though we had not known the exact period of the ſudden appearance of the Little and the New KAMMENI, inſpection alone would indicate that theſe three iſlands are of a formation very poſterior to that of the other three; for, independently of their not preſenting the ſame organization, they are not covered with that thick ſtratum of white pumice-ſtone which is to be remarked in the Iſlands of THERA, THERASIA, and ASPRONISI. This ſtratum appears evidently to have been produced before the appearance of THERA, and even before the formation of the roadſtead, ſince no traces of it are to be ſeen on that iſland, and ſince it does not ſhew itſelf on any of the advanced parts of the coaſt.

SANTORIN, according to PLINY, received the name of *CALISTA* or *HANDSOME ISLAND*, after having iſſued from the boſom of the waters: it afterwards bore that of *THERA*, one of its kings: the name which it has at the preſent day, is formed of that of St. IRENE, to whom the iſland was dedicated under the emperors of the Eaſt.

It is not to be doubted that if we conſider what SANTORIN muſt have been at its ſecond period, becauſe it is ſtill ſo at this day, we ſhall eaſily be perſuaded that it muſt have been one of the fineſt and moſt fertile iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. Its circular form, a ſoil entirely ſuſceptible of culture which roſe by degrees from the borders of the ſea in the form of a *calotte* flattened on its top, Mounts St. STEPHEN and St. ELIAS, ſituated at one of the extremities, covered, perhaps, with verdure and wood—every thing concurred to render SANTORIN, if not a very beautiful iſland, at leaſt one of the moſt agreeable of the ARCHIPELAGO; for, in the ſuppoſition that this mountain was covered with vegetables, it contributed to the embelliſhment of the iſland; it furniſhed wood to the inhabitants, and afforded them, perhaps, a very copious ſpring of water. In fine, if this mountain was clothed with wood before the rains had waſhed away the earth which covered it, the

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latter muſt have retained the rain waters, muſt have permitted them to penetrate into its boſom; and then the ſmall ſpring of water, which is perceived there towards *Messaria*, muſt have been much more copious than it is at the preſent day, when this calcareous mountain is almoſt entirely naked.

The other iſlands of theſe ſeas have their ſurface very unequal. They are no more than naked mountains, covered with rocks: there are but a few vallies, a few ſmall plains, and a few riſing grounds that are cultivated. Their aſpect is far leſs agreeable than that which Santorin muſt have preſented at this period; and at the preſent day, even notwithſtanding the ſmall extent of its territory, though it wants a good harbour, though it has none but ciſtern water, it is ſtill the moſt populous and the richeſt of all the ſmall iſlands of the Archipelago.

In the *Annals of the World*, by Brietius, we find that, thirty years before the Ionic emigration, Theras, ſon of Autesion and nephew of Polynices, cauſed a colony of Minyæ to be conveyed to Calista, in order to augment there the number of the inhabitants. The Minyæ were deſcendants of the Argonauts, who had followed Jason into Colchis, and who, on their return, had ſtopped at Lemnos, and had there eſtabliſhed themſelves. The deſcendants of theſe heroes, driven ſome time after from Lemnos by the Pelaſgi, took refuge in Sparta, where they were kindly received. Lands even were given to them, and they were married to girls of the country. But as theſe ſtrangers, ever reſtleſs and ambitious, were in the ſequel convicted of endeavouring to ſeize on the ſovereign authority, they were apprehended and condemned to death. Love inſpired one of their women with a trick which ſucceeded. Having obtained permiſſion to ſee their huſbands previous to the execution of the ſentence, they changed clothes with them, and, by means of this diſguiſe, the huſbands got out in the dark from their confinement, and fled to Mount Taygetus. Then it was that

THERAS demanded them, obtained them, and conducted them to *CALISTA*, which, ſince that time, was called *THERA*. Thus it was, ſays the author, that this wiſe man found means to render uſeful rebels and plunderers who had deſerved death.

The inhabitants of THERA, it is ſaid, neither mourned for children who died before the age of ſeven years, nor for men who ceaſed to exiſt beyond fifty: the former, becauſe they had not yet entered into life; the latter, becauſe they were become uſeleſs. This cuſtom, more barbarous than rational, could not have been introduced but among an inſulated people, few in number, where all the merit of a man conſiſts in producing children and in employing his arm in defence of his country. But when it is neceſſary to enlighten; when it is neceſſary to guide youth, proud, preſumptuous, and unſkilful; when it is neceſſary to ſeize, with a ſteady, experienced hand, the helm of affairs, in a vaſt State, agitated and threatened on all ſides; when, through the extent of conceptions, it is neceſſary, in the preſent and the paſt, to read the future without being miſtaken, will it then be ſaid that, at fifty years old, man has lived long enough, and that there remains nothing more for him to do than to quit a life henceforth uſeleſs to himſelf and to his fellow-creatures? Undoubtedly not: it is at this age, much more than at any other, that he is capable of ſerving his country with his head, if he be leſs qualified to ſerve it with his arm.

But let us leave fable and fictions, and go and examine on Mount ST. STEPHEN the ruins of the ancient city: we ſhall judge, from their aſpect, how populous and flouriſhing THERA was under the Roman Empire.

On paſſing below MESSARIA, we ſaw in the wall of an encloſure, a ſtatue of a woman in marble, to which the head, the arms, and the legs, were wanting. Notwithſtanding the bad condition in which it was, this ſtatue

appeared to us to have a tolerably handſome form. We alighted from our mules at the foot of the mountain, and aſcended by a road rather ſteep, and ſo much the more difficult, as in ſeveral places the ground is covered with looſe, worn down pumice-ſtone.

About a third of the way up the mountain there is a ſmall ſpring of water, which we found very good: it ſerves to quench the thirſt of ſome ſheep and goats which graze in this quarter. Having reached the ſummit, we directed our ſteps to the left, leaving on the right Mount St. Elias, which is much more elevated than the ground on which we ſtood.

What firſt ſtruck us, were ſome ſarcophagi cut in a calcareous rock. On advancing, we diſcovered the remains of the walls which formerly ſurrounded the city: we perceived veſtiges of houſes and ſome ciſterns in pretty good preſervation. We preſently ſaw the modern church dedicated to St. Stephen, probably built on the ruins of the temple of Minerva or of Neptune. Farther on, in walking a little obliquely to the left, are found the ruins of another temple. Here are ſeen walls very thick, truncated pieces of pillars of a gray marble, ſcattered on the ground, and half-buried. Towards the extremity of the town is ſeen a rather large hexagon, of no great elevation, on which it is probable that there was formerly a ſtatue. Was it that of Marcus Aurelius, or of Antoninus, which the inhabitants of Thera raiſed in honour of thoſe emperors? By the ſide of this hexagon is a ſmall deſerted modern building, erected on the foundations of ſome ancient edifice more conſiderable. We remarked, at the foot of a wall, a marble ſarcophagus, on the faces of which ſome foliage was ſculptured in relief: at the two extremities were ſatyrs very much injured.

The Ruſſians, we were told, carried off ſome intereſting inſcriptions, ſtatues, and baſs-reliefs: they broke ſeveral pillars in endeavouring to take them

away. Some time before our arrival, Citizen FAUVEL alſo dug for curioſities by order of M. DE CHOISEUL; which procured him a few pieces that had eſcaped the reſearches of the Ruſſians. We alſo found ſome inſcriptions which have not been remarked by the travellers who have preceded us, or at leaſt have not yet been publiſhed by them: they were copied with the greateſt care by LAZARUS ALBI, a prieſt diſtinguiſhed by his virtues, his knowledge, and a profound ſtudy of Greek literature.

This town was of moderate ſize; its length was great in compariſon to its breadth. The walls which ſurrounded it, had ſufficient ſolidity, and muſt have defended it tolerably well; but it was its poſition on a very ſteep mountain, ſtill more than its walls, which ſecured it from the attacks of its enemies.

From this place, the eye can extend to a great diſtance in every direction, except towards Mount ST. ELIAS, which is much more lofty. When the weather is fine, you perceive the ſummit of Mount IDA in CRETE, and you eaſily diſcover ANAPHE, ASTYPALÆA, IOS, NAXOS, and the greater part of the CYCLADES. The plain which is ſeen below, in the weſt quarter, is the moſt fertile and the moſt productive place of the iſland. Veſſels anchor ſometimes in ſummer off the ſhore at which this plain terminates. The bottom is ſand and gravel.

SANTORIN, in proportion to its extent, is the richeſt and moſt populous of all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. There are reckoned on it five principal villages, in each of which is a primate: *APANOMERIA*, *SCAURO*, *PIRGOS*, *EMBORIO*, and *ACROTIRI*. The primates, diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Epitropi*, are charged with the police of their diſtrict, with the convoking of the principal inhabitants for the aſſemblies relative to the affairs of the iſland, with ſuperintending the collection of the impoſts, &c.

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They are renewed every year, and appointed by the general aſſemblies of the people. Beſides theſe five principal villages, there are ſeveral other ſmaller ones, ſuch as *Merevelli*, *Vourvoulo*, *Phiro-Stephani*, *Phira*, *Gonia*, *Carterado*, *Votona*, *Meſſaria*, and *Megalo-Chorio*. The population exceeds twelve thouſand ſouls, almoſt all of the Greek church.

The number of Roman catholics has diminiſhed ſince Tournefort, for, in his time, they amounted to one-third of the inhabitants, and they form not a ſixth at preſent. There are two biſhops: the one Latin, who paſſes the winter at Scauro, and the ſummer at Phira; and the other Greek, whoſe reſidence is at Pirgos. Here Jeſuits formerly reſided; they have been ſucceeded by Lazariſts: they both have been for a long time charged with the education of ſome young people. Here are, beſides, two convents of nuns, the one Latin, and the other Greek: the Latin convent follows the rule of St. Dominic, and the Greek that of St. Basil. The Greek prieſts are in this iſland as numerous as they are throughout the Archipelago, and they are here almoſt as poor.

The inhabitants of Santorin are very laborious and very temperate: they are juſtly reckoned to have more morals and more probity than thoſe of Naxos. They are alſo much more induſtrious and much richer. They apply themſelves with incredible activity to the culture of the vine and that of cotton. The women manufacture cloths of different qualities: they alſo knit caps and ſtockings, which they ſell to ſtrangers, and ſend to Russia and to ſome towns of Italy. It is the nuns who fabricate the fineſt and the beſt cloths. This trade is ſomewhat extenſive, conſidering the ſmall population of the iſland; and as the cotton which is gathered is not ſufficient for the induſtry of the inhabitants, they draw it from the other iſlands, and in particular from *Scala Nova*, in the Gulf of Ephesus.

Wine

Wine forms the principal revenue of the iſland: the moſt eſteemed is that known under the name of *Vino Santo.* It is ſweet, luſcious, and of indifferent quality the firſt year: it becomes very good as it acquires age, and preferable to the beſt CYPRUS wine. The inhabitants ſell it at no more than three or four parats the oke at the vintage. It almoſt all goes to RUSSIA. It is made with white grapes very ripe, which are expoſed for eight days to the ſun, ſpread on the terraces or flat roofs of the houſes. They are afterwards trodden; then preſſed, and the new wine is put into caſks, which are carefully bunged till the fermentation has ceaſed.

The common wine is not very good: it is in general ſweet, and eaſily turns ſour. It is made with white grapes and with black grapes indifferently, which are trodden on coming out of the vineyard: the new wine is immediately drawn to be put into caſks. As the grapes are too ripe and too ſaccharine, in order that the fermentation may take place more eaſily, the inhabitants are accuſtomed at SANTORIN, as well as in all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, to add a fourth or even a third of water. They ſuffer this wine to ferment about a month, after which the caſk is cloſely bunged. On the lees which remain in the vat, a rather large quantity of water is poured, and it is left to ferment for eight or ten days. The wine which ariſes from it is then drawn off, and the lees are preſſed. This wine, which is of a quality very inferior, ſerves, during the whole year, for the uſe of the inhabitants; the other is ſold at one or two parats the oke to ſtrangers.

The cellars are ſpacious and very clean: they are dug in the bank of white pumice-ſtone, which we have ſaid covers the whole iſland. The upper part is cut into the form of an arch. Some rich individuals coat the inſide of theſe cellars with a cement; others put none, and it appeared to us that this was not neceſſary. Although this ſubſtance is friable and rather ſoft, the arch, however, is very ſolid, and it ſeldom happens that any portion

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at all conſiderable breaks off from it. The caſks are placed in two rows. There is towards the entrance of the cellar a ſquare vat, tolerably large, conſtructed in maſonry, cemented on the inſide with a mixture of lime and pumice-ſtone paſſed through a ſieve.

The quantity of wine which is exported from SANTORIN every year, is very conſiderable: it is eſtimated, in an ordinary vintage, at a million of okes. Hence is alſo exported a ſmall quantity of brandy. The inhabitants, deprived of ſpring-water, are ſcarcely acquainted with any other beverage than their ſmall wine. They drink it, though turned ſour, and in this condition it is ſtill agreeable. We ourſelves made uſe of it with pleaſure, and without inconvenience, during the intenſe heat which we experienced in the iſland.

Though the ſoil of SANTORIN is very dry, and far from fertile, the cotton tree and the vine thrive there extremely well. The ſurface of the ſoil is nothing but a mixture of pumice-ſtone, fragments of baſaltes, and vegetable earth, produced by the dung which is put on it, and by the decompoſition of the vegetables which there grow. The cotton of SANTORIN appears to differ from the herbaceous cotton which is cultivated in the other iſlands: it is ſhrubby, and laſts fifteen or twenty years. It is cut annually even with the ground. The gathering takes place from the end of Fructidor to Brumaire.

The vine-plants are ſet at the diſtance of two or three feet from each other, and they are ſuffered to grow for ten or twelve years without being cut in any way. When it is thought that they have acquired a ſufficient ſize, they are annually trimmed, at the ſame time more ſhoots are left than we leave in the South of FRANCE. The vine-plant is ſupported, in order that

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it may not trail, and the branches are propped by the means of ſome old cuttings of vines faſtened all round. The grapes are ripe, and in a condition to be gathered, at the beginning of Fructidor.

A vine thus planted, cut, and trimmed, laſts not ſo long as thoſe in our ſouthren departments; but it yields a double and triple quantity of grapes: this conſideration may eaſily determine the cultivator to make ſome trials in the warm climates, and in places where the lands are deep and light as at SANTORIN.

The other ſpecies of culture practiſed in the iſland are of very little importance. The land is not good enough for wheat. Only a little barley and ſome legumes are gathered. Fruit-trees are very ſcarce: the fig-tree and the almond-tree are almoſt the only ones cultivated. A few ſheep, goats, and hogs, are bred. Aſſes and mules are made uſe of for draught: oxen are ſeldom employed for ploughing. At SANTORIN, no other fuel is uſed than wood and charcoal, which are brought from the coaſt of ASIA, or the lentiſk, which the inhabitants go to cut at HIERA, and on ſome neighbouring iſlands.

SANTORIN pays about 55,000 piaſtres impoſt, including the land-tax, the karatch, the duty of two parats per oke, at which the wine is taxed, and the cuſtomary preſents, every year, at the time of the arrival of the captain-pacha's fleet in the ARCHIPELAGO. The land-tax ought to be no more than a tenth of the produce, as it was ſettled at the time of the ſurrender of the iſland; but the waiwode, who farms this duty from the PORTE, has for a long time paſt levied on private individuals a fifth, without the latter ever having been able to bring their juſt remonſtrances to a hearing.

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The villages ſituated on the ſummit of the interſected ground of the road-ſtead, have a very ſingular aſpect. The houſes are half cut into the pumice-ſtone, half built on the outſide of it, and placed the one above the other, according to the diſpoſition of the ground. The part which is elevated on the outſide, is levelled at the top like a terrace, by means of a mixture of lime and pumice-ſtone ſifted: ſuch are *Apanomeria*, *Scauro*, *Merevelli*, *Phiro*, *Stephani*, and *Phira*. The pooreſt villages inland, ſuch as *Vourvoulo*, *Condo-Chori*, and *Meſſaria*, ſituated on a declivity, are nothing more than an aſſemblage of caverns made in the pumice-ſtone. There is only a ſmall portion of the front of each habitation that is a little walled up, on account of the entrance-door. Pirgos is the moſt conſiderable, the beſt built, and the richeſt village of the iſland. There you breathe a pure air, and enjoy an agreeable proſpect. Almoſt all the houſes of Santorin have a ciſtern, which the inhabitants take care to fill in the rainy ſeaſon: they have no other water to drink and to give to their cattle.

The partridge and the hare, ſo common in moſt of the iſlands of the Archipelago, are very ſcarce at Santorin. The rabbit which we ſaw at Tenedos, at Myconi, at Delos, at Paros, at Scio, and elſewhere, is not here to be found; but, to make amends, the quail is in plenty from the end of Fructidor. The inhabitants purſue it by means of a net fixed to a hoop of three or four feet in diameter, to which is adapted a ſtick ſeven or eight feet long. The ſportſman caſts his net on a ſtump of the vine, or of the cotton-tree, where he ſuſpects that there is any quail ſquatted, and it happens rather frequently that he catches one. We ſaw ſeveral taken the following year, in Fructidor, in leſs than a quarter of an hour.

As the inhabitants cannot conſume all the quails which this kind of ſport procures, they are in the habit of parboiling them, and preſerving them

all the winter in vinegar, or in *vino ſanto*. This is a very delicate diſh, which ſurpaſſes the fig-pecker of CYPRUS prepared in the ſame manner.

We ſaw in the ſame ſeaſon the Alpine crow*. We were told that it was a bird of paſſage, and that it came from the mountains of ASIA MINOR.

The road of SANTORIN is about ſeven miles in length from north to ſouth, and ſix in breadth from the little harbour of PHIRA to the Iſland of ASPRONISI. It would be one of the beſt ports of the ARCHIPELAGO, if ſhips could caſt anchor there; but the lead indicates a conſiderable depth of water, ſuch as two hundred and fifty and three hundred fathoms. Boats anchor at SAN NICOLO: veſſels make faſt by mooring below PHIRA, when they come to load with wine. If bad weather oblige them to take ſhelter at SANTORIN, they generally make faſt between the LITTLE and the NEW KAMMENI, till the ſquall be over. Frigates may caſt anchor in fifteen or twenty fathoms water, over a gravelly bottom to the ſouthward of the OLD KAMMENI, at the ſame time taking the precaution to run out immediately a hawſer to the ſhore.

Some little diſtance to the ſouth ſouth-weſt of the LITTLE KAMMENI, the bottom of the ſea riſes, and the lead indicates no more than fifteen or twenty fathoms; but this bottom is of ſtone and rock, on which a ſhip cannot anchor. The fiſhermen belonging to the iſland affirm that it has riſen conſiderably within a ſhort time, which ſeems to announce the approaching formation of a new iſland.

We think that it would be imprudent to remain too long at anchor between the LITTLE and the NEW KAMMENI, on account of the vicinity

* *Corvus pyrrhocorax.* LINN.—*T.*

of

of the latter, which exhales a very fetid ſmell, and muſt be extremely unwholeſome; for, independently of the waters which ſtagnate there, the volcanic exhalations that proceed from this place and the environs, muſt infect the air to a rather great diſtance, and ſoon occaſion dangerous diſorders.

CHAPTER XI.

Arrival at Candia.—*Defcription of that town.—Vifit to the pacha.—Departure.—Arrival at* Retimo.—*Behaviour of the pacha.—Arrival at* Canea.—*Defcription of the environs.—Temperature.—Obfervations on the winds.—Earthquake.*

IMPATIENT to repair to the Ifle of CRETE, and to fee the country of JUPITER and of MINOS, we embarked on the 12th of Thermidor (30th of July), in the evening, in a large boat with lateen fails, which had arrived a few days before at Port SAN NICOLO. The captain, a Muffulman by religion, was a native of TUNIS. He often frequented the iflands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and enjoyed a very good reputation. He had brought *mantegue** from the Gulf of SIDRA in AFRICA, and was going to CANDIA to take on board for EGYPT a cargo of raifins, almonds, ST. JOHN's bread, liquorice-roots, and honey.

As the diftance from SANTORIN to CANDIA is about thirty leagues, we fhould have preferred embarking on board a European veffel, rather than making this trip in one of the country-boats: but there was no choice left for us. Merchant-veffels frequent but little the harbour of SANTORIN in fummer; and, in that feafon, the regularity of the wind allows of navigating, without fear and without danger, in fmall boats.

* *Mantegue* is a mixture of butter and mutton-fuet, of which the Orientals make ufe in their ragouts and paftry.

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We ſet out from SANTORIN in the evening, in order to arrive in broad day at CANDIA. We left on the right the little Iſland of CHRISTIANA, and we ſteered, without compaſs, nearly towards the ſouth. The north wind fell, as uſual, after ſunſet: it was faint and variable during the night, and, in the morning, we found ourſelves ten or twelve leagues from CANDIA, to the north-eaſt of DIA. As we were too far to the eaſtward, and as the wind, which blew from eight o'clock in the morning, was north north-weſt, we plied to windward a part of the day, in order to paſs to the weſtward of DIA; which was the reaſon that we did not enter the harbour till the evening of the 13th (31ſt of July).

We made the captain acknowledge that it is much better to conſult a compaſs, as ſoon as one loſes ſight of the land, than the ſtars and the ſun, which do not indicate the courſe with the ſame preciſion. Notwithſtanding this avowal, he ſet ſail for EGYPT a few days after, diſdaining to purchaſe an excellent compaſs which a Raguſan mariner offered him at a low price, ſo much empire has habit over an ignorant man.

The firſt chain of Mount IDA, which riſes in the form of a pyramid to the ſouth-weſt of CANDIA, ſerves at a diſtance as a land-mark to navigators, who wiſh to anchor in the harbour of that town. The little Iſland of DIAS ſituated to the eaſt north-eaſt, known to mariners under the name of *STAN-DIA**, equally concurs to guide their route: it does more; it affords them an aſylum in the three roadſteads which it has in its ſouth quarter. We ſhall have occaſion to ſpeak of them elſewhere.

The harbour of CANDIA is defended from the north wind by rocks, on which has been built a ſtrong jetty parallel to the coaſt; it is very ſafe, and

* Εις τιν Δια, is tin Dia.

might

might contain from thirty to forty merchant-veſſels if it were dug and kept in order. It can at this day receive but eight or ten, and theſe too muſt be lightened or unloaded; for there are no more than eight or nine feet water in the inſide of the harbour, and about fifteen at its entrance. The Turks, who enjoy every where with the indifference of a tenant; the Turks, who make every thing worſe, and never any thing better, ſuffer it to be choked up from day to day without employing themſelves on the means of clearing it; which would, nevertheleſs, be very eaſy, the bottom being of ſand and mud.

In front of the jetty, to the left on entering, are arſenals which are allowed to fall into decay: theſe were conſtructed by the Venetians in 1552, to judge of them from that date put underneath the arms of the Republic. They ſuffered greatly at the time of the ſiege of this place by the Turks, in 1667, 1668, and 1669: ſome even have loſt a great part of their roof. Theſe arſenals, to the number of ten, are, properly ſpeaking, nothing more than docks, which that induſtrious and trading people had conſtructed for building gallies, and for putting them under cover when they were laid up.

From the harbour the entrance into the town is by a gate, which is ſhut at night. Walls of a ſolid conſtruction, a good ditch, and ſome advanced works, defend this place very well by land. The houſes are better built than all thoſe which we had hitherto ſeen, if we except Scio; but the population here is not in proportion to its extent. Here are ſcarcely reckoned ten or twelve thouſand Turks, two or three thouſand Greeks, and about ſixty Jews. The Greeks who inhabited it, before it was ſubjected to the Turks, followed the Venetians at the time of the capitulation, or made their eſcape into the country. They come not at this day without trembling to ſettle in a town where their exiſtence is inceſſantly threatened by the janizaries, and their fortune very frequently invaded by the pachas.

CANDIA is ſituated on a lawn of no great elevation. The ground, ſupported towards the ſea by a ſtrong wall built on rocks, affords an agreeable walk. Here are ſeen ſeveral pieces of cannon with the arms of VENICE, capable of defending by ſea the approaches of the place. The ſeraglio of the pacha ſtands on the oppoſite ſide, and occupies the ſite on which was built the palace of the proveditor. The handſomeſt churches, damaged by the ſiege, have been repaired and converted into moſques. The houſes conſtructed by the Venetians have diſappeared for a long time; but the fortifications have been carefully kept up, ſo much importance does the PORTE annex to the preſervation of the iſland.

We ſhall not undertake to decide whether CANDIA occupies the poſition of the ancient *CYTÆUM*, as ſome geographers appear to believe, or that of *MATIUM*, as ſome others ſuppoſe: we ſhall only ſay, from the places which we attentively viſited in a ſecond voyage, that it appears to us more proper to conſider the ruins of a town, ſituated four leagues to the weſt, as thoſe of *CYTÆUM*. We ſhall place *MATIUM* two leagues to the eaſt of CANDIA, facing DIA, as PLINY calls it. HERACLEA, which is known to have been the harbour of CNOSSUS, ſtill exiſts four or five leagues to the eaſtward. That of CANDIA, the beſt on the whole coaſt, appears to us, in this ſuppoſition, to be Port PANORMUS, ſituated, according to PTOLEMY, between *CYTÆUM* and *HERACLEA*.

The name of CANDIA, which this town bears at the preſent day, comes from the Saracen word *chandax* or *candax*, which ſignifies entrenchment, becauſe it was in this place that the Saracens entrenched themſelves when they came to make the conqueſt of the iſland, under the emperor MICHAEL I. ſurnamed the Stammerer.

In

In 1645, the Turks got poſſeſſion of CANEA, RETIMO, and all the Iſland of CRETE; but they were unable to make themſelves maſters of the forts of GRABUSA, SUDA, SPINA-LONGA, and the town of CANDIA. MAHOMET IV. who was ſenſible that he ſhould never be the quiet poſſeſſor of this important iſland, as long as the Venetians ſhould occupy the capital, in 1667, ſent his viſir ACHMET KUPERLI with a conſiderable army in order to lay ſiege to it. The Venetians, ſtill maſters of the harbour and of the ſea, preſerved the power of tranſmitting ſuccours of every kind; and the place, well fortified and vigorouſly defended, was capable of reſiſting for a long time all the efforts of the Ottoman Empire.

The army of the beſiegers had been ſeveral times reinforced: already were reckoned upwards of one hundred thouſand Turks who had periſhed at the foot of the walls by the fire of the place, or by the exploſion of mines. The Venetians received freſh ſuccour from FRANCE, which would, undoubtedly, have obliged the Turks to retire, when the town, under the command of MOROSINI, capitulated through the artifice of a Greek in the ſervice of the PORTE, after a ſiege of two years and a half, and the loſs of thirty thouſand men, Venetians, Piedmonteſe, and French.

When we arrived in CANDIA, the vice-conſulate was vacant. We found only a ſimple agent, to whom we communicated the project which we had of viſiting the eaſt and middle part of the iſland before we repaired to RETIMO and CANEA. The drogueman, a Jew by birth, more officious than we could have wiſhed, came to recommend to us, the day after our arrival, to wait on the pacha, in order to diſcharge, he ſaid, a duty, and to yield to the wiſh which this reſpectable old man had to ſee us, and to conſult us reſpecting his health. "You will obtain from him," added he, "all the accommodation that you can deſire for viſiting the iſland without "any danger."

Our

Our firſt movement was to refuſe to go to the pacha's, of whom we had nothing to aſk. "What purpoſe can this viſit anſwer?" ſaid we to the drogueman. "It is at leaſt uſeleſs. Shew him our firmans, tell him who "we are, and what we are come here to do: tell him, beſides, that we do "not practiſe phyſic, although we gather plants; and give him to under-"ſtand, that it is very frequently dangerous for a perſon to conſult phy-"ſicians when he is in good health." The drogueman perſiſted: he told us that we could not proceed one ſtep in the iſland if we did not accede to the wiſhes of the pacha. The agent was of his opinion: ſome captains of veſſels, preſent at our converſation, applauded this propoſal: curioſity pleaded alſo in favour of the drogueman: we conſented; and, in the afternoon, we were conducted to the ſeraglio.

We were firſt received in the apartments of the principal officers, who ſpoke to us with eagerneſs of the French revolution, and of the war which we then had to ſuſtain againſt the natural enemies of the PORTE. We replied to all their queſtions with reſerve: this ſubject was too delicate to be treated of in TURKEY. We were offered pipes, coffee, ſherbet, and perfumes, after which it was announced to us that the pacha was ready to receive us.

We had found nothing but ſofas in the apartment of the officers; we ſaw two chairs in that of the pacha, placed at a little diſtance from him. On entering, we made him our ſalutation in the oriental ſtyle, which he returned*. He invited us to ſit down: the drogueman and the agent's ſon ſquatted on a carpet. After the cuſtomary compliments on our ſafe arrival,

* It conſiſts in carrying the right hand to the heart, and inclining the head a little. The Turks pronounce between themſelves their *ſalom alaik*, *ſalam alaik-hom*, which they take good care not to ſay to a non-Muſſulman.

the pacha ſpoke to us of his health, and begged us to feel his pulſe. He was a good-looking old man, upwards of ſeventy years of age. We complied with his requeſt; we told him that he was in good health, and that he had ſtill upwards of twenty years to live. He appeared ſatisfied with this prediction.

He afterwards aſked us what was the object of our travels. "Curioſity "and the deſire of acquiring knowledge," anſwered we, "bring us into "your iſland. We have paſſed ſome months at CONSTANTINOPLE; we "have viſited moſt of the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO; we would wiſh "to take a look at the celebrated country which you govern, and gather "ſome of thoſe balſamic plants which Heaven has here ſcattered with pro-"fuſion."—"That cannot be," ſaid he to us coldly: "I cannot give you "ſuch a permiſſion." We ſhewed him our firmans, by which we had the power of viſiting all the countries ſubject to the Ottoman government. "That cannot be," continued the pacha. We inſtanced ſeveral travellers; we ſpoke of ſeamen, who walk about the iſland with the greateſt freedom, who go a ſhooting, and wherever they pleaſe. The pacha ſtill repeated: "That cannot be: your life would be expoſed: to this I cannot conſent."

He talked to us of gangs of thieves and robbers who infeſted the roads, and who would murder us if we were to go to Mount IDA and to GORTYNA, as we wanted. "That cannot be," ſaid we in our turn: "there are no "gangs of thieves and robbers in a country well governed: puniſhment "would follow too cloſe on guilt, for villains to dare to make their appear-"ance."—"No doubt," ſaid the pacha to us: "there are much fewer "robbers ſince I command; but there are ſtill enough for you to be expoſed "to loſe your lives." We deſired the drogueman to cut ſhort a conver-ſation which might become diſagreeable to all, and to obtain permiſſion for us to retire; which was granted.

We were very much aſtoniſhed at this ſtrictneſs of the pacha, and were endeavouring to divine the cauſe of it, when a word from the drogueman afforded us a ray of light. "The pacha," ſaid he to us, "made a difficulty "in granting you what you aſked him, only becauſe there paſſed not long "ago a foreigner, who gave him five hundred piaſtres for going to ſee I forget "what ruins ten leagues from this place."—"Very well," replied we; "tell "the pacha that we will not purchaſe at ſo dear a rate the ſight of ſome "heaps of ſtones, and that he may commit extortions on the Greeks and "Jews if he is in want of money: as for us, we have not five hundred piaſtres, "and if we had, we would find means to employ them to a better purpoſe." The drogueman endeavoured to get us to conſent to ſome ſmaller ſacrifice. "Not a piaſtre, not a parat," ſaid we; "beſides, it ſhould not be through "your means that we would treat, if we ſhould entertain ſuch a wiſh."

It was uſeleſs, in the preſent circumſtances, to make a longer ſtay in CANDIA. We reſolved to go, if poſſible, by land to CANEA, perſuaded that we ſhould find from the conſul every accommodation of which we ſtood in need. We aſked for a janizary to accompany us; the aga ſent us a man well known, who had been ſettled in the town for a long time: a Turkiſh muleteer, himſelf a janizary, furniſhed us with horſes, and ſerved us as a guide. We knew that there was nothing to fear from the Greeks, and two janizaries ſettled and married, who publicly undertook to conduct us to CANEA, were a ſufficient ſecurity to us. We tranquillized the French ſhip-captains, who expreſſed uneaſineſs on our account. We ſent our baggage by ſea with a Greek ſervant, and ſet out by ourſelves, and without baggage, on the 17th of Thermidor (4th of Auguſt) in the morning.

Theſe janizaries, born in the iſland, ſpoke Greek very well, and drank wine and brandy ſtill better. We were extremely well ſatisfied with them; and we learnt, even from their mouth, that the pacha had ſpoken to us

of robbers only in order to get money, and have a pretext for giving us, at our own expenſe, an eſcort on which he would have levied his claims. I ſhould have ſuppreſſed this anecdote, which is of little importance, had I not thought that it may be uſeful to travellers, and did it not ſhew, at the ſame time, how greedy the agents of the Turkiſh government are after money, and what little delicacy they uſe as to the means of procuring it.

The environs of CANDIA preſent a few fertile plains, cultivated, and ſome riſing grounds ſuſceptible of being ſo. At a little diſtance to the ſouth, is ſeen an inſulated mountain, in the form of a pyramid, at the foot of which one paſſes in going to viſit the ruins of GORTYNA: the Europeans know it by the name of JUPITER's mountain. To the ſouth-weſt, Mount IDA, covered with ſnow almoſt all the year, throws out, on one ſide, ſome branches towards the town; and, on the other, runs to join the mountains of SPHACHIA, in like manner covered with ſnow during eight or nine months.

On going out of the town, we found a low plain, ſomewhat extenſive, watered by two rivulets, after which we croſſed calcareous hills and mountains, on which the Venetians have made paved roads, that have been kept in tolerably good preſervation. We left the firſt links of the chain of Mount IDA very cloſe to us on the left. We ſaw every where, in abundance, ſtorax among the plants and ſhrubs which we had met with in the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. We arrived at an early hour at DAMASTA, a village by no means conſiderable, where we paſſed the reſt of the day. We were made to ſet off in the morning before day-light. We traverſed places leſs elevated, leſs arid, and more cultivated than thoſe we had paſſed the day before; fertile plains of little extent and narrow vallies. We ſaw a great many olive-trees, a few vines, a few mulberry-trees, and ſeveral oaks. We reſted under the plane-tree mentioned by TOURNEFORT, near a conſiderable

ſpring

ſpring which takes its riſe at too ſmall a diſtance from the ſea to ſerve for the watering of the lands. We proceeded for a long time by the ſea-ſide, and we arrived at an early hour at RETIMO.

The environs of this town afford proſpects very pictureſque: gardens planted with orange-trees, among which riſe ſome date-trees; fields covered with olive-trees and kitchen-garden plants; riſing grounds on which the vine, the fig-tree, the mulberry-tree, and the almond-tree grow together; further on, wooded mountains: to the weſt, the citadel, the harbour, and the ſea—every thing concurs to render RETIMO the moſt agreeable town in the iſland. It would have become, perhaps, the richeſt and moſt populous, if the harbour, ſmall as it is, had been kept in order. Its preſent population conſiſts of from five to ſix thouſand inhabitants, half Greeks, half Turks; the Jews there are not ſo numerous as at CANDIA.

RETIMO, built on the ruins of the ancient RITHYMNA, too weakly defended, was plundered and ravaged by the Turks as far back as the year 1572, while SELIM II. was cauſing the ſiege of FAMAGUSTA in CYPRUS to be puſhed on with vigour: but it was not till the reign of IBRAHIM, in 1645, that the Venetians were driven from it for ever.

Though we had alighted with our guides at a caravanſary, we willingly accepted a lodging that was offered to us at the houſe of a Jew, a French *barataire*. In the courſe of the evening his ſon took us all over the town, ſhewed us the harbour and ſome gardens, and related to us the deplorable event which had obliged his father to abſent himſelf.

The pacha of RETIMO, who from a low condition had juſt riſen to great employments by dint of intrigues and money, eager to recover his advances, pay his debts, and acquire freſh riches in order to obtain, with a ſuperior

rank,

rank, a government more important, ſuffered no opportunity to eſcape of extorting money from the inhabitants of RETIMO and the unfortunate cultivators of his province; and when occaſions and pretexts were wanting, he taxed juſt in the ſame manner, at ſums more or leſs great, the private perſons ſuſpected to be rich. For ſix months paſt that he had been in the town, Greeks, Jews, and Muſſulmans, all had paid more or leſs. ABRAHAMAKI, *barataire* and agent of the Republic, had flattered himſelf that the pacha would not dare to apply to him; he was miſtaken. ABRAHAMAKI was reckoned rich: the pacha could not find it in his heart to ſuffer this prey to eſcape. He ſent to him for ten thouſand piaſtres, at the ſame time aſſuring him of his protection if he paid them inſtantly. The Jew refuſed to part with that ſum. The pacha inſiſted and threatened. ABRAHAMAKI then addreſſed himſelf to the French conſul at CANEA (Citizen HENRY MURE), and communicated to him the ſituation in which he ſtood. The conſul immediately went to RETIMO. The pacha, who was informed of the circumſtance, cauſed the Jew to be ſeized, ordered him to be put in irons in the ſeraglio, and threatened to have him cudgelled to death if he did not pay down inſtantly the ſum required.

What could the conſul do in this extremity? Wait on the pacha, claim his juſtice, demand the execution of the capitulations: the Jew would not, on that account, the leſs periſh. Every one acknowledged that the pacha was capable of this atrocity. The family of ABRAHAMAKI aſſembled; all the Jews of RETIMO made a ſtir: they deliberated: every one was of opinion to pay. The priſoner himſelf, fearing for his life, wrote to his friends, begged them to count the ſum which the pacha required, and ſend word to the conſul to undertake nothing in his favour. The money being paid, the Jew was releaſed; but the pacha once more threatened to have him cudgelled to death if he uttered the ſmalleſt complaint.

This

This abuſe of authority could not be tolerated without great inconveniences. The pacha had dared to make an attack on the fortune and liberty of an agent of the Republic; he ought to be puniſhed. To ſay nothing, was an act of cowardice; this was in ſome meaſure to authorize this wicked man to commit every day freſh acts of tyranny. Shortly no ſhip-captain would have dared either to take in oil at RETIMO, or to land on theſe parts become too dangerous. We learnt, a few days after, that the conſul had ſent word to the agent to conceal himſelf from the reſentment of the pacha, and that he had written to Citizen DESCORCHES, envoy extraordinary at the Ottoman PORTE, in order to communicate to him what had juſt happened.

The complaint of the conſul was ſupported by thoſe which were preferred at the ſame time by the pacha of CANDIA, on account of other extortions of a nature no leſs flagrant. The PORTE, which tacitly allows its agents to ſqueeze and torment tributary ſubjects, cannot without danger ſuffer the Muſſulmans, and ſtill leſs perſons under the immediate protection of foreign powers to be laid under too ſevere a contribution. The pacha of RETIMO, on the requeſt of Citizen DESCORCHES and of the pacha of CONSTANTINOPLE, was diſplaced, and condemned to make reſtitution of the ſums extorted. He obeyed the firſt part of the orders of the PORTE; but he declared to the *chiaoux* who came to intimate them to him, that no fear, no motive could determine him to reimburſe the money which he had exacted.

We ſaw him arrive a few days after us, at CANEA: he was ſaluted by the guns of the fort, and received a viſit from the agas and the principal inhabitants of the town. He himſelf paid a viſit to the pacha of CANEA, and haſtened his departure for the MOREA, whither he was going to wait the effect of his new intrigues at CONSTANTINOPLE.

In

In the mean time all thoſe who had money to claim, and who were ſpecially deſignated in the firman of the PORTE, preſented themſelves, either to the pacha of CANDIA, or to that of CANEA, in order to be reimburſed before the departure of their plunderer. It is probable that theſe two pachas affected to endeavour to determine the pacha of RETIMO to make the reſtitution ordered by the PORTE, ſince he ſaid loudly that if the ſmalleſt violence were attempted againſt him, he would put himſelf at the head of his people and repel force by force. It was in vain that the obedience which he owed to the orders of the ſultan was repreſented to him: he did not the leſs perſiſt in declaring that the ſight even of the inſtruments of puniſhment could not determine him to it, and that no authority could compel him. He therefore departed without any one daring to undertake any thing againſt him. He received the civilities of the pacha of CANEA, and was again ſaluted by the guns of the fort, as if he had not been a rebellious ſubject, and as if he had carried with him the regret of the inhabitants.

We are ignorant of the ſequel of this buſineſs; but it is probable that by means of the money which he had extorted, money which his agents at CONSTANTINOPLE will have ſkilfully ſcattered among perſonages of influence, not only this man, doubly culpable, will not have been puniſhed, but he will even have obtained a place more honourable and more lucrative than the former.

The next day, the 19th of Thermidor, (6th of Auguſt) we ſet out at ſunriſe, at the ſame time expreſſing our wiſhes that the Turks who outrage humanity, who oppreſs in a revolting manner the nations that they have conquered and ſtripped, may be one day forced to return to the wild and diſtant countries whence they would never have iſſued, perhaps, if the Greeks had known how to preſerve the virtues of their anceſtors.

For

For a long while we contemplated, to the north-weſt of the town, the citadel built on a maſs of ſteep rocks, advanced into the ſea. We proceeded for ſome time along a hilly and difficult road, and we arrived at the ſhore of ARMIRO, after having croſſed a ſmall river which runs at the foot of the mountain. Beyond the beach we ſaw two fine ſprings, the one of ſalt-water; the other, more conſiderable, of freſh: farther on, ſtands the fort of ARMIRO, built by the Venetians, for defending a gorge, and preventing pirates or enemies who might make a deſcent on the beach, from being able to penetrate by that way into the interior of the country.

We then roſe higher by degrees, and we found ourſelves at the foot of the mountain called MALAXA (Μαλαξα), in ſight of the Gulf of SUDA. This mountain is ſchiſtoſe and granitical at its baſe; whereas all thoſe which we had ſeen till then, had appeared to us calcareous, and for the moſt part cretaceous.

Ranging along the mountain, whoſe direction is from eaſt to weſt, we paſſed, without ſuſpecting it, within reach of the ruins of AMPHIMALE, of which we ſhall ſoon have occaſion to ſpeak.

We deſcended by a paved road into a fertile plain, tolerably well cultivated. We paſſed at a little diſtance from the Gulf of SUDA, and arrived early at CANEA, much leſs tired by the length of the route, than fatigued by the exceſſive heat which we had experienced.

Citizen MURE, who had been a long time expecting us, would not allow us to lodge at the convent of the Capuchins, on account of the indecorous behaviour in which an Italian monk, to whom the houſe was intruſted, indulged himſelf towards the French. We here thank him for his attention on this ſubject, for the civilities which we received at his houſe,

 and

and for the valuable information which he gave us. We are likewiſe indebted to Citizen MAGALON, a merchant, for intereſting details reſpecting the productions of the iſland, the trade that is there carried on, the population of the country-places, and ſome cuſtoms which are there eſtabliſhed.

CANEA, much leſs extenſive than CANDIA, is in proportion more populous. Here are reckoned upwards of four thouſand Turks, two or three thouſand Greeks, a hundred and fifty Jews, four French houſes, and ſome Italian houſes; the latter are under the protection of the emperor of GERMANY, or the Republic of RAGUSA.

The town is ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall and a wide ditch: it has but one gate on the land ſide. The harbour is defended by batteries in good condition. To the left, on entering, is remarked a jetty parallel to the coaſt, behind which a ſomewhat great number of veſſels might anchor if the bottom were cleanſed. The largeſt are obliged to remain near the entrance of the harbour, expoſed to the waves of a rough ſea when the northerly winds blow with a little violence.

Facing the jetty is ſeen, as at CANDIA, a range of roofed docks, which the Venetians had conſtructed for building and ſheltering their gallies.

CANEA ſcarcely held out for a few days againſt the Turks, who came to attack it in 1645. CORNARO, who commanded the Venetian troops, came out of it with arms and baggage in order to retire to RETIMO, where he was killed a little time after, in wiſhing to defend that town, much leſs important and much leſs capable of reſiſtance than CANEA.

The neareſt mountains, parallel to the coaſt, leave between them a plain upwards of a league in width, which extends over a ſpace of twelve or fifteen miles,

miles, from the head of the Gulf of SUDA to the environs of DICTYMNA, a mountain that ſtretches to the north, and forms the advanced promontory which formerly bore the ſame name, and which the Italians deſignate at this day under that of *CAPO SPADA*. This plain is, in general, tolerably fertile and almoſt entirely cultivated. Gardens of orange-trees, foreſts of olive-trees, a few ſcattered vineyards, fields deſtined for the culture of wheat, barley, cotton, ſeſamum, maize, melons, and different legumes, thoſe are what it preſents every where.

Following the ſea-ſhore to the weſt of the town, you croſs a miry rivulet; then you ſee near the coaſt a ſhoal and the little deſert iſland of SAN THEODORO, on which the Venetians had erected a battery for preventing a deſcent on the beach. When you have paſſed the iſland, you arrive at PLATANIA, an extenſive, ſolitary, and rural walk, where grow ſpontaneouſly plane-trees which excite aſtoniſhment from their ſize and number. Each of them ſupports one or two vine-plants, which embrace the whole extent of the tree, and furniſh in abundance, without care and without culture, grapes with large ſtones, of an excellent quality. As they ripen very late in theſe ſhaded places, they are ſeen to arrive with pleaſure at the markets of CANEA, when the others are beginning to diſappear. A ſmall river waters and traverſes this agreeable foreſt, and there diffuſes life and coolneſs.

We had been for a long time at CANEA: we had already viſited the environs of the town, and gathered on the mountains the dittany and the ebony of CRETE, and moſt of the intereſting plants of the iſland: we had been preſent at village-feſtivals, when it was propoſed to us to go and ſee the ruins of *PALEO-CASTRO*, which we ſuſpect to be thoſe of *APTERA*, according to the account of ſome travellers.

After a journey of an hour and a half, we arrived at the Greek monaſtery, *Ayia Kiriaki*, ſituated to the ſouth-weſt of Canea. We there left our horſes, and took a guide to conduct us to the ruins which we wiſhed to examine. We aſcended by a very bad road, over a ſteep rock, making part of the firſt chain of mountains which we have ſaid to be parallel to the coaſt. We ſoon came to a thick wall that led us to a lawn on which we remarked the remains of a fort almoſt ſquare, flanked by towers. The walls of this fort, as well as thoſe of the ramparts with which the town was ſurrounded, are nearly a toiſe in thickneſs. They were of a ſolid conſtruction, and faced with hewn-ſtone, which, in ſome places, is ſtill to be perceived.

We came out from this encloſure by the ſouth wall, and found ourſelves on a ground commanded by a chain of rocks more lofty and more ſteep than thoſe on which the fort was ſituated. This ſpace is terminated to the weſt by other perpendicular rocks, which form a natural rampart around it, ſeparating it from the ſurrounding mountains, and rendering it inacceſſible on that ſide.

This rock was itſelf ſurmounted by a thick wall, and ſtrengthened by towers at certain diſtances. The town was ſituated between the fortreſs and the wall, by which we arrived, and the perpendicular rocks which we have juſt mentioned. This ſpace was ſufficient for a town of moderate ſize. Here we neither found inſcriptions nor baſs-reliefs, nor veſtiges of temples or ſumptuous edifices, nothing that could indicate to us the ancient name of this town.

If Kissamos ſituated between Cape Grabusa and Cape Spada, twenty miles to the weſt of Canea were formerly the harbour of Aptera, as appears evident, according to the text of the ancient authors, and if Canea occupy

occupy the place of CYDONIA, as is commonly imagined, STRABO is mistaken when he says that APTERA was but ten miles from CYDONIA. But if ancient CYDONIA were forty ſtada from its harbour, as is thought by the author of the *Legiſlation de Crete*, page 473, then it is probable that we ſaw the ruins of that town, and that thoſe of APTERA are ten miles to the weſt, facing KISSAMOS, as STRABO ſays: they are thoſe which TOURNEFORT viſited, and of which he ſpeaks*.

A quarter of a league to the eaſt of CANEA, is ſeen a riſing ground, and, farther on, ſome calcareous hills, the greater part naked, which advance into the ſea, and form a peninſula terminated by Cape MELECCA. The monaſtery of the TRINITY lies among theſe hills: it is inhabited by a great number of friars, who almoſt all apply themſelves to the culture of the land. We remarked with pleaſure in the environs of the monaſtery, ſome ſuperb orchards of olive-trees, a few vineyards, and ſome fields, intended for the culture of different ſpecies of corn. We ſaw a great many bees, and a vaſt number of goats and ſheep: there were among others in the garden a ricinus or *Palma Chriſti* planted ſeveral years ago, which indicated by its vigour that the greater part of the plants of the warmeſt climates might be introduced into CRETE. We ſpent ſome days with theſe friars, and we went from this place to the monaſtery of ST. JOHN, ſituated towards the cape, on an elevated lawn. The friars are here not ſo numerous, becauſe the lands which they have to cultivate are not ſo good nor ſo extenſive as thoſe belonging to the convent of the TRINITY.

We deſcended from Cape MELECCA by a narrow gorge and by a road made between frightful precipices, which furniſhed us with ſome intereſting plants. Towards the middle of the declivity, ſtands a building partly de-

* *Voyage au Levant*, vol. i. page 81.

ſtroyed,

ſtroyed, depending on the monaſtery of St. John, formerly inhabited by a few friars to whom the guard of this gorge was intruſted.

The Gulf of Suda *(Plate VIII)*, a ſpacious natural harbour, one of the fineſt and ſafeſt of the Archipelago, lies to the ſouth of the peninſula of which we have juſt ſpoken. Its mouth is to the eaſt, and its head runs to the weſt north-weſt: it is not only ſheltered by the angles and capes which the lands form, but alſo by the two Iſlets of Suda, on one of which is ſituated the fort conſtructed by the Venetians, and which they preſerved a great while after the iſland was no longer in their poſſeſſion. It was not till the reign of Achmet III. that the Turks made themſelves maſters of this fort, and by thoſe means became the tranquil poſſeſſors of the whole Iſland of Crete.

The anchorage the moſt frequented by the commanders of veſſels who wiſh only to ſhelter themſelves from a gale of wind, is to the ſouth ſouth-weſt of Cape Melecca, behind a ſmall iſland, known to mariners under the name of *Old Suda*. Large ſhips of war anchor at all places, either at the entrance of the gulf, or by the ſide of the iſland which we have juſt mentioned. Both of them go to the head of the gulf only when they are to remain a long time at the anchorage. The boats belonging to the country ſometimes caſt anchor between the two Iſlands of Suda.

Half a league from the ſea, to the ſouth of this gulf, are to be met with on an elevated ground the ruins of Amphimale. All the walls of this town, though in a great meaſure deſtroyed, may be eaſily traced; every where are ſeen in their encloſure, rubbiſh and heaps of ſtones formed by cultivators. Two vaſt ciſterns riſe above theſe ruins, and leave people to divine how they could be filled. They are diſtinguiſhable from the red cement with which they are faced internally, and above all from the mark which

 the

the waters have there left. One part of the town was on a plain, the other followed the ſlope of the ground inclined towards the ſea. We remarked in the eaſt part, the remains of the gates of the town. We in vain looked for marbles, inſcriptions, and baſs-reliefs; every thing has diſappeared or ſerved for the conſtruction of a Greek monaſtery which has been erected on theſe ruins, and in which we were happy to paſs the night.

From the time of our arrival in CRETE till the approaches of the autumnal equinox, REAUMUR'S thermometer, with ſpirits of wine, was conſtantly during the day, at 25, 26, and ſeldom at 27 degrees, in a room with a north-eaſt aſpect. We had at moſt had 25 degrees at SANTORIN and at MILO; 22, and 23 at NAXIA. True it is that the ſeaſon was ſomewhat leſs advanced when we viſited thoſe iſlands.

During the three ſummer months, the exceſſive heat of the ſun is conſtantly tempered every day, from eight or nine o'clock in the morning till the evening, by the rather rapid current of air which prevails from north to ſouth in the Iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO and on the northern coaſt of CRETE. This refreſhing wind, called *embat*, takes its courſe and is modified throughout the LEVANT, according to the direction of the coaſts and the extent of ſea which lies before them. We ſhall remark, by the way, that it is ſouth-weſt on the ſouthern coaſt of CRETE, of CYPRUS, and of CARAMANIA; nearly north-weſt at SMYRNA and ALEXANDRIA; weſt at TYRE, SIDON, and on all the coaſt of SYRIA. It comes to ATHENS, from the weſt or from the Gulf of LEPANTE; and this it is which the Greeks deſignated under the name of Zephyr. During the night, the wind takes a contrary direction; it comes from the land to the ſea; it is more faint than during the day, and never extends beyond three or four leagues.

The

The winds are variable in the other ſeaſons, eſpecially towards the equinoxes: at the end of Fructidor, we experienced, with a ſoutherly wind which laſted two days, a heat of from 30 to 32 degrees. The horizon was then as if charged with ſmoke, and the rays of the ſun were reddiſh and faint, as is remarked in EGYPT, when the ſame wind is felt. Citizen PEYRON, a ſhip-captain, told us that being at anchor at SUDA, on the 30th of May, 1793, the heat became ſo conſiderable from eight to eleven o'clock at night, during a gale of wind from the ſouth, that people could ſcarcely breathe, and every one felt a general faintneſs. The iron guns of his ſhip had contracted ſo violent a degree of heat, that a perſon could not lean his hand on them without being forced to withdraw it immediately. This fact was certified to us by Citizen MURE and the other Frenchmen ſettled at CANEA. It is to be regretted that no one aſcertained, by means of the thermometer, the true degree of heat which prevailed during this memorable evening.

Though the cold is ſharply felt in winter, on IDA and on the ſummit of the *WHITE MOUNTAINS*, and though they are covered with ſnow as early as the end of Brumaire, the temperature is, nevertheleſs, very mild in the plains and towards the coaſts. There it does not freeze: there the rains are frequent, but of ſhort duration. The ſun appears almoſt immediately after the rain, and the ſky is frequently clear and ſerene. In ſummer it never rains, either in CRETE, or in the Iſlands of the ÆGEAN SEA. The dew is then ſufficient for the ſupport of the vegetation of the plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in theſe climates. Almoſt all the others muſt be watered, if it be wiſhed to cultivate them with any ſucceſs.

It has been remarked at CANEA, that when the wind is to the northward or to the eaſtward, the waters of the ſea are very low, and that they are, on the contrary, high, when the wind blows from the weſtern quarter, or even when

when it is in that direction in the offing, although it may not yet have reached the iſland. The difference which we ourſelves obſerved on the level of the waters during the ſtay that we made in CRETE, is about two feet. In the ſummer, the waters are, in the harbour, eight or ten inches below the top of a rock ſituated oppoſite to the windows of the conſul's houſe: they riſe eight or ten inches above this rock when the wind ſhifts to the weſt. Citizen MURE even aſſured us that in violent weſterly gales, the level of the waters roſe always ſeven or eight inches higher, ſo as to cover other rocks ſituated oppoſite to the angle of the houſe which Citizen MAGALON, a merchant, occupies towards the entrance of the harbour.

This difference in the level of the waters has nothing to do with the flux and reflux which is obſerved in ſome parts of the MEDITERRANEAN. It proceeds only from the ſtrength of the wind, which, in the former caſe, impels the waters from the coaſts towards the open ſea, and, in the latter, brings them from the open ſea towards the coaſts. At CANEA, the ſouth wind produces no very perceptible difference, while it raiſes, in a very remarkable manner, the waters in all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and on all the coaſts of the ÆGEAN SEA.

On the 7th of Brumaire (28th of October) at five o'clock in the morning, we felt at CANEA, an earthquake the ſhocks of which, though of no great violence, laſted ſome ſeconds: it was calm at this moment; but ſhortly after the weſterly wind blew with impetuoſity for ſeveral days. The inhabitants told us that earthquakes are not uncommon among them; and if we conſult hiſtory, we ſee that this iſland has experienced very terrible ones at different periods. The moſt remarkable is that which took place in 1490: it extended over the whole iſland, from eaſt to weſt, and occaſioned very conſiderable damage.

CHAPTER XII.

Division of the island.—Of the agas.—Of their rights on the lands.—Of the police which they exercise.—Reflections on this subject.—Of the nations which have succeeded each other in Crete.—*Of the Abadiots.—Of the Sphachiots.—Historical summary respecting* Lambro Canziani.

THE Island of CRETE is divided into three pachaliks or governments, the chief places of which are CANDIA, CANEA, and RETIMO. In the first of these towns is a pacha with three tails, *seraskier*, or general in chief of all the forces of the island. In the other two, is a pacha with two tails, independent of that of CANDIA, as to the administrative part and the police, but subject to him in every thing that concerns the military department. All three, in their turn and in their provinces, are to superintend the collection of the impost, and the safety of the places which are intrusted to them. They are also bound to cause justice to be done by the cadis, and to order their sentences to be executed, as we have said elsewhere.

The pachaliks are divided into a certain number of districts, and each district comprises, in its extent, a certain number of villages, some of which belong to the imperial mosques, some to the sultana-mother; and the greater number, under the name of *MALIKIANE'-AGASSI*, are granted for life to agas or lords, in consideration of a sum of money, more or less great, paid into the imperial treasury before the firman of investiture, and an annual quit-rent, which is carried into the coffers of the treasurer of CANDIA, for the maintenance of the fortresses and the pay of the troops of the country.

All

All land-owners, Greeks or Muſſulmans, pay to the aga, to the moſque, or to the ſultan, a ſeventh of the produce of their lands. They are alſo obliged to carry their olives to the mills which the agas alone have a right to cauſe to be conſtructed. Oil pays a ſeventh; and, what becomes a very important object to the lord, the cruſts*, or miry waters, which remain as an indemnification for the workmen whom he places at the mill for the extraction of the oil, and for the horſes that he furniſhes for the preſſing of the olives.

The police of the village belongs to the aga: for this purpoſe he appoints a *ſoubachi*, a Muſſulman like himſelf, a ſubaltern tyrant, always more greedy, more untractable, than his maſter. Being an informer of every thing he ſees, of every thing he hears, a troubleſome inquiſitor into the fortune of all, inceſſantly occupied in ſetting the inhabitants at variance, in fomenting hatred among them, the ſoubachi is the moſt miſchievous being that Turkiſh policy has created for the misfortune of the Greeks. The aga makes uſe of him for puniſhing the ſmalleſt faults, real or ſuppoſed, by arbitrary fines, by impriſonment, and not unfrequently even by the baſtinado.

The Greeks appoint among themſelves a *capitan*, or primate, charged to conciliate people's minds, and to terminate in an amicable manner the differences which may ariſe among them. He is a juſtice of peace, to whoſe opinion the wiſeſt always ſubmit, in order to avoid the formidable claw of the cadi, to whoſe tribunal all litigious affairs are carried as a laſt reſort. The primate alſo watches over the intereſt of all. To him it is

* Cruſts or lees. From theſe a rather conſiderable quantity of oil is drawn, as well as from the waters which have been poured boiling on the lees after the extraction of the virgin oil. Theſe waters are received into large reſervoirs: the oil which detaches itſelf from the lees, or thick part, riſes by degrees to the ſurface of the water.

that the aga addreſſes himſelf when he has orders to give, or requeſts to make; when he requires labourers for the culture of his fields, or for works of public utility. The Greeks alſo appoint a *daſcalos*, or writer, who keeps a regiſter of the names of the inhabitants, of the ſums at which they are taxed for their karatch, and of thoſe which they are to pay the aga after each harveſt.

No Greek can marry without the permiſſion of the aga, a permiſſion which he muſt purchaſe by a preſent, ſuch as a ſheep, a lamb, or a few fowls. If the fair one pleaſe the aga, he ſometimes keeps her for himſelf, without any one daring to oppoſe it. The cudgel is always ready to ſtrike the reluctant Greek; and woe be to the audacious man who ſhould prefer a complaint to the pacha or to the PORTE! He would pay with his fortune, and frequently with his head, for ſuch a ſtep. The aga, in this caſe, marries, in the *kapin* manner, with the free conſent, or what is underſtood to be ſuch, of this woman. Ottoman manners oppoſe his living with her; and if ſhe perſiſted in refuſing to receive his hand, however powerful the aga might be, he would be obliged to deſiſt from his pretenſions. Not unfrequently, after having kept this Greek woman two or three years, he turns her off for another, and marries her to ſome Greek inhabitant of the village, who dares not refuſe her. It is aſſerted, that it is uncommon for a Greek woman not to be flattered at ſharing the bed of her lord, young or old, whatever may be the ſhame which the men attach to it, and the fate that ſhe muſt experience ſooner or later; ſo true it is that here, as elſewhere, authority is ſeductive, and vanity not to be reſiſted.

Married men are not permitted to quit the iſland, unleſs they are mariners or merchants. There has been ſeen hanging to the maſt of his boat a *karavokéri**, who had dared to infringe this law, and who had, by ſtealth,

* Maſter or captain of a bark, boat, or veſſel.

carried

carried unhappy beings to the Gulf of EPHESUS. Bachelors are, nevertheleſs, permitted to go and work in the MOREA and elſewhere; but a tax of ſixty parats or two piaſtres a head is required of them before their departure.

If a murder happen in the village, or on its territory, and the delinquent be not known, the aga muſt pay to the pacha a ſum of money, which he levies on all the inhabitants. He retains a part for himſelf: this is the cuſtom in TURKEY; never does money paſs through the hands of a man without his keeping a portion of it. Taxes here are always arbitrary, and more or leſs heavy, according to the population and the circumſtances of the inhabitants. If it be a Muſſulman who has been found dead, the ſum demanded is exorbitant, becauſe religion has been outraged in one of its members. Such an aſſaſſination, beſides, is almoſt always followed by the death of ſeveral Greeks. The relations and friends of the deceaſed think it their duty, and that their honour is intereſted, to aſſaſſinate, in their turn, the firſt inhabitants that happen to fall in their way; and though the law does not authorize them to do this, and ought even to puniſh them, they are almoſt always abſolved by popular opinion.

If a Greek have committed a ſerious offence, or if he be accuſed of any, which amounts nearly to the ſame thing, the pacha intervenes, and demands the delinquent, in order to have him tried and condemned. For this purpoſe he muſt apply to the aga, who gives him up immediately, or defends him till after the ſentence of the cadi. The Greek often gets out of a ſcrape, by means of the arrangements which he enters into with his aga, and of the ſacrifices which he makes towards him and the pacha. He who has nothing, pays with his head; he who poſſeſſes ſomething, is inceſſantly expoſed to loſe it, as has been ſhewn: this depends on the will of the pacha, and frequently too on that of the ſoubachi.

With all the means which the law of the ſtrongeſt has put into the hands of the aga, it may well be ſuſpected that he never fails to abuſe them, and to ſqueeze as much as he can the unfortunate cultivators. For inſtance, he purchaſes, at a low price, their commodities (with the exception of wine), which he generally does not pay for till after he has ſold them, and derived from them conſiderable profit.

All that I have juſt ſaid is applicable only to the Greek villages ſubject to the agas. Thoſe which belong to moſques, or to the ſultana-mother, are ſomewhat leſs oppreſſed than the others, becauſe the cultivators may have their complaints heard by the ſultan or the inſpectors of the moſques, who are intereſted in protecting them againſt the agents that they employ for the recovery of their rights. The Turkiſh villages, like thoſe of the Greeks, are ſubject to the police of the aga. Owners of eſtates pay in the ſame manner; but they are all exempt from gratuitous labour, and the aga would ſoon be diſplaced and puniſhed, if all the inhabitants preferred at once their complaints to the pacha, or to the PORTE, againſt any injuſtice of too revolting a nature.

It is unneceſſary to repeat here that the Greeks can neither occupy employments emanating from the government, nor can be admitted into any corps of troops, unleſs they have embraced the religion of MAHOMET.

Thus it is that the iſland, which ſo long proſpered under the laws of MINOS, is at this day governed; thus it is that the inhabitants of a country, where liberty in a manner took birth, are bent under the yoke of the moſt ſhameful ſlavery, notwithſtanding the ſea which ſurrounds them, and the mountains by which they are defended.

Subject

Subject to the laws which a virtuous king had presented to them in the name of the Divinity, who undoubtedly inspired him, the Cretans were wise and happy; they were so when, satisfied with necessaries, they solely sought their subsistence in the bosom of the earth which they themselves cultivated, and in the produce of the flocks that they reared on the mountains with which the island is covered.

When they wished to procure themselves superfluities; when they modified or changed the laws of their legislator; when every city wished to form an independent state; when the rich, a long time at variance with the poor, succeeded in getting possession of power, then the citizens destined to defend the country were distinguished from those who were to feed it; then the fields were no longer cultivated but by the hand of slaves; private education and public institutions all still tended, indeed, to render man robust and skilful, courageous, and intrepid; but morals were relaxed, the public mind was enervated, and the authority of the laws was frequently called in question. The Cretans, become restless and turbulent, ambitious and covetous, waged unjust wars, plundered their neighbours, and destroyed each other. Presently, the field of their robbery being no longer sufficiently extensive, they infested the seas with their vessels, disturbed the tranquillity of the nations of the ARCHIPELAGO, and molested their commerce: they were on the point of destroying it, had not the Rhodians armed themselves in defence of all, and succeeded in burning, sinking, or dispersing, for some time, the fleets of these pirates.

From that period it was no longer the love of liberty that still upheld for a few moments the degenerated Cretans; it was the love of independence, it was a remnant of their ancient valour, it was the courage and virtue of their ancestors, that still guided them in battle. They for a long time resisted the Romans, already masters of a part of the world; they

even

even beat them ſometimes, but were obliged to yield to the talents and fortune of METELLUS; they loſt their fleets, and found themſelves forced to abandon their laws, and receive thoſe of the conquerors.

When, under the emperors of the EAST, chriſtianity was introduced into this iſland, liberty for a conſiderable time had no longer exiſted: the courage of the inhabitants, enfeebled by a foreign yoke, became daily more enervated under a mild and comforting religion, which preached obedience, humility, and a contempt for the bleſſings of this world. Accordingly, the Saracens, led on by the love of conqueſt and the wiſh of propagating their creed, had only to make their appearance in 823 in order to become maſters of the iſland, and to eſtabliſh themſelves there, in ſpite of the efforts of MICHAEL II. emperor of CONSTANTINOPLE. NICEPHORUS PHOCAS, as intrepid a warrior as an unſkilful ſovereign, drove the Saracens from CRETE in 961, and re-united that iſland to the empire of the EAST, of which it formed a part till the capture of CONSTANTINOPLE by the cruſaders, in 1204. The Marquis DE MONTFERRAT ſold it in, 1211, to the Venetians, who were already eſtabliſhed in ſome iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, and the latter preſerved it till they were driven from it by the Turks.

Among the people who at this day inhabit the Iſland of CRETE, are to be remarked Abadiots, Muſſulmans by religion, Arabs by origin, and remains of thoſe Saracens of whom we have juſt ſpoken. Their countenance, different from that of the Turks, and the Arabic language which they ſpeak among themſelves, leave no doubt on this ſubject. Swarthy, meagre, and of middling ſtature, the Abadiots are miſtruſtful, malicious, and vindictive: they always go armed, like the Turks, and kill each other on the ſmalleſt provocation. They occupy twenty little villages to the ſouth of Mount IDA, and form a population of about four thouſand perſons. They receive

and

and give an asylum in their houses to the Turks and the Greeks who have committed any crimes; but they require them to remain quiet, and not to meddle in their affairs. If these malefactors become troublesome, if they give any cause of dissatisfaction, the Abadiots themselves kill them, in order to get rid of them; but, in no case, do they give them up to justice, by which they are claimed and pursued. Restrained by the Turks and the Greeks, and watched by their agas, the Abadiots dare not indulge themselves too openly in robbery. However, they sometimes make incursions into the Greek monasteries which lie within reach of their villages, and when they can, lay the friars under contribution.

It was they who, in 1772, plundered an English vessel, after having murdered her crew. The captain, having kept the sea for a long time, wished to approach the south coast of the island, in order to look for an anchorage, and renew his stock of water. The sight of a cultivated land attracted him into a cove in the vicinity of the PAXIMADE Islands, where he rightly supposed that he would find water. No sooner was the vessel brought to an anchor, than almost all the crew hastened to land, in order to look for the spring or the rivulet which the appearance of the ground indicated. All on sudden a troop of Abadiots fell on them, cut them to pieces, and repaired on board, by means of the ship's longboat, before the captain could suspect what had happened on shore.

The inhabitants of the high mountains situated to the south of CANEA and RETIMO, are considered as the real descendants of those famous Cretans so long masters of the country. Known at the present day under the name of *Sphachiots*, they are distinguished from the other Greeks by their tall stature, by their handsome look, by their love of liberty, by their courage, their skill, and, above all, by the hatred which they have vowed against the usurpers of their island.

Mountains have been at all times, and among all nations, the laſt aſylum of liberty, as they have always been the abode of ſtrength and health. A rugged, untractable ſoil, which affords little ſubſiſtence, which compels man to a long and obſtinate labour, which ſubjects him to ſobriety, and condemns him to all ſorts of privations, ſcarcely tempts conquering nations, when every rock, beſides, is transformed into a fortreſs, when it is neceſſary to fight at every ſtep vigorous, energetic men, who defend with obſtinacy the ſoil which has given them birth, and the independence which it procures them.

Under the Romans, under the Saracens, under the Venetians, and under the Turks, the Sphachiots had found means to preſerve their laws and their cuſtoms. They annually appointed their magiſtrates in the general aſſemblies of the people. Obliged by the Turks to tranſport, in ſummer, from the top of their mountains, the ice neceſſary for the conſumption of the inhabitants of CANEA and RETIMO *, they paid no tax, no impoſt; they had no agas; they never ſaw among them the agents of the Turkiſh government; they formed, in a word, a republic in ſome meaſure independent, when, in 1769, ſome Ruſſian emiſſaries came to diſturb the peace, and impair the happineſs which theſe privileged Greeks enjoyed on their mountains.

Whether CATHERINE had really conceived the project of expelling the Turks from EUROPE, and of placing her grandſon on the throne of CONSTANTINE; whether ſhe wiſhed only to call the attention of her enemies to a diſtance from the places whither ſhe was going to carry her principal forces; it is certain that, on the unexpected appearance of ſome Ruſſian line-of-battle ſhips, in February 1770, in the environs of CORON and of NAVARIN, all the Greeks of the MOREA, thoſe of MACEDONIA and of EPIRUS,

* The inhabitants of CANDIA procure it from Mount IDA.

and

and the greater part of thoſe of the ARCHIPELAGO, roſe at the ſame inſtant, flew to arms, and manifeſted a courage of which they were not thought capable. At this period twenty thouſand muſkets diſtributed opportunely, and ten thouſand Ruſſians commanded by experienced generals, would certainly have produced, throughout European TURKEY, a revolution which would for ever have delivered the Greeks of thoſe countries from the Ottoman yoke.

The Sphachiots, in theſe circumſtances, were not the laſt to take up arms. Some hundreds of the braveſt among them went and joined the Mainots their friends, and proceeded together to offer their ſervices to Count ORLOFF. A greater number were preparing to ſet out, when they received an account that the Ruſſians, who had but three ſhips of the line and two frigates, which were deſtitute of military ſtores and land-forces, had raiſed the ſiege of CORON, and deſerted the Greeks, who had already made themſelves maſters of NAVARIN, PATRAS, MISITRA, and ſome other towns leſs important.

The Albanian Muſſulmans, againſt whom no precaution had been taken, either by ſea or by land, they who a few batteries on the Iſthmus of CORINTH, and a few veſſels of ſmall force in the Gulfs of LEPANTE and ATHENS, would have prevented from coming into the MOREA, immediately ſpread themſelves over that peninſula, beat every where the Greeks, diſheartened by the unexpected retreat of the Ruſſians, and made among them a horrible ſlaughter. The ravage which theſe Albanians committed on that unfortunate land, will never be repaired as long as the Turks ſhall be maſters of thoſe countries, and the caprice of a few rulers ſhall be able to diſpoſe of the fortunes and the lives of the inhabitants.

The pacha of CANDIA, informed of the conduct of the Sphachiots, resolved, in the same year 1770, to march against them with all the forces of the island. He wished to exterminate them, and by those means afford a terrible example of severity to all the Greeks who might be tempted to imitate them. The Turks, always ready to fight when they are persuaded that there are christians to be killed, towns to be plundered, boys and girls to be violated, and slaves of all ages and of both sexes to be sold, were soon united under their colours. Soldiers and cultivators, traders and workmen, all wished to take a part in this expedition. Fifteen thousand men, armed at all points, arrived in a few days at the nearest mountains, on which they found not one inhabitant. The women and children of the Sphachiots, accompanied by the old men and the infirm, had gained the most elevated spots, and the most inaccessible places. Those whose age allowed them to handle a musket or a sword, to the number of upwards of two thousand, posted with intelligence at the second chain of their mountains, disputed with courage every rock, stopped for a long time, at every gorge, the Turks by no means habituated to this manner of fighting; and when a passage was forced, or a rock carried, the Sphachiots, lightly clothed, and lightly armed, accustomed to climb mountains, disappeared in a moment; while the Turk, who knows not how to fight but on horseback, who is both heavily clothed, and heavily armed, could not follow his enemy across the rocks and precipices, which it was necessary to clear in order to reach him.

During the whole summer, the Turks displayed a great deal of perseverance in fighting the Sphachiots; but being afterwards surprised at a resistance which they did not expect, disappointed in their hopes, frightened at the approaches of the cold, and tired of a painful and disagreeable war, they loudly demanded to return home. The Sphachiots, on their side, found themselves reduced to the last extremity: almost all their villages had been

set

ſet on fire: a great number of their women and children had been carried off; they had loſt their flocks; their proviſions were exhauſted; and the earth which they could not cultivate, no longer afforded them any thing; ſo that they received with pleaſure the firſt propoſals that were made to them: they conſented to pay the annual tribute to which all the Greeks are ſubject; and, by theſe means, they were enabled to return to their habitations, and continue their barter with the maritime towns.

As the Turks, on this occaſion, had not been able to take with them horſes, and to cauſe themſelves to be followed by beaſts of burden, they had thought of loading three or four thouſand Greeks with their baggage; and in the different battles which they had to fight, they placed theſe Greeks in front of them, in order to make themſelves a rampart of their bodies.

This trait of barbarity and cowardice, which was related to us by a great number of Sphachiots, was what moſt affected theſe brave mountaineers, and what moſt contributed to reduce them to a deplorable condition. Frequently they durſt not fire on their enemies, for fear of hitting thoſe whom they conſidered as their brothers, ſtill more unfortunate than themſelves.

Although the Sphachiots pay their karatch with the greateſt repugnance, and are well diſpoſed to avail themſelves of the firſt favourable moment for attempting to ſhake off the yoke which hangs heavy on their necks, they took good care, during the laſt war of the Ruſſians againſt the Turks, not to yield to the ſolicitations that were made to them to take a part in the armaments which took place at TRIESTE, and which were commanded by Captain *LAMBRO*. They had, on this occaſion, formed a better judgment of events, than they had done on the other; and, indeed, they have had only to congratulate themſelves on this conduct; they would infallibly have loſt the few privileges which they have remaining.

LAMBRO

LAMBRO CANZIANI, born at THEBES of poor parents, gave himſelf up, from his infancy, to the profeſſion of a ſeaman. Early in life he was acquainted with all the coaſt of GREECE and of the PELOPONNESUS; he viſited almoſt all the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO; he had ſeveral times occaſion to anchor in all the harbours and in all the bays of the BLACK SEA; and though he was but a common ſailor, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſuch a manner by his intelligence, his courage, his boldneſs, and, above all, by his hatred towards the Turks, that he was admitted, while yet young, as an officer, into the ſervice of RUSSIA. In this quality, he took part in the ſiege of CORON, in 1770; he was in the ſame year at the engagement of TCHESME'. He ſignalized himſelf repeatedly on the BLACK SEA during the conqueſt of the CRIMEA by the Ruſſians; at laſt he was promoted, by the empreſs of RUSSIA, to the rank of colonel.

The war which took place in 1787 made this man, who was no leſs brave than enterpriſing, conceive the hope of acting a great part in his own country. He knew that the Greeks are always rouſed at the word Liberty: he knew them to be capable of the greateſt efforts for obtaining it: he flattered himſelf with releaſing them from the Ottoman yoke, if the court of RUSSIA would accede to his views.

But it appears that CATHERINE was not diſpoſed to ſecond projects which ſhe, perhaps, thought extravagant, and perhaps, too, ſhe was diſſuaded from it by the Ruſſian nobility, who, it is ſaid, conſider the conqueſt of European TURKEY, and the emancipation of the Greeks, as contrary to their intereſts. Be this as it may, LAMBRO, being neither able to obtain from the empreſs money nor ſhips, did not the leſs decide on fitting out at TRIESTE, at the expenſe of his friends, twelve ſmall veſſels, of which he took the command, and on board of which he obtained permiſſion to hoiſt the Ruſſian flag.

However

However feeble this armament was, it greatly perplexed the Turks; it electrified the Greeks of the MOREA and of EPIRUS: thoſe of the ARCHIPELAGO contented themſelves with ſending privately a few ſailors; thoſe of CONSTANTINOPLE, SMYRNA, and SALONICA, appeared to take no part in it; but all ſecretly furniſhed money.

Already was this fleet reinforced by important captures; already did LAMBRO conſider himſelf as the approaching deliverer of GREECE, when, all of a ſudden, the object of the war was changed, and it was terminated by an unexpected peace. In 1790 and 1791, it was much more important, to ſtop the progreſs of the French revolution, than to render the Greeks independent. The two courts of AUSTRIA and RUSSIA were, in ſome meaſure, obliged to adjourn the war againſt the Turks at the moment when the coaleſced powers would have parcelled out FRANCE, divided her forces, annihilated her fleets, and burnt or deſtroyed her arſenals.

Peace being concluded, LAMBRO received orders to lay aſide the Ruſſian flag, and even to lay up his ſquadron. He obeyed for a moment; but preſently he began again to cruiſe under the ſame flag, and once more infeſted the ARCHIPELAGO and the coaſt of the MOREA. The PORTE complained to the Ruſſian ambaſſador, who diſowned LAMBRO; ſo that there remained for the Turks no other courſe to take than to arm quickly, in order to ſtop the progreſs of a man whom they knew to be powerfully ſupported.

LAMBRO, who had then ſeveral frigates or corvettes, and a great number of other ſmall veſſels well equipped, and manned by determined men, reſiſted by his courage, or eſcaped by his ſkill, from the ſhips which the PORTE ſent againſt him. But he was afterwards attacked by forces ſo conſiderable, commanded by the Algerines and the Turks united, that he was entirely deſtroyed, and ran the greateſt riſk of loſing his life. On this occaſion, he

 performed

performed prodigies of valour; and though he had to fight ſeveral ſhips of the line, he diſputed the victory the whole day: he had ſeen almoſt the whole of his flotilla taken, ſunk, or burnt, while he was ſtill fighting. His ſhip was full of ſhot-holes, and threatened every moment to carry him to the bottom. Night fortunately came and put an end to this too unequal conflict, and alſo furniſhed him with the means of making his eſcape in boats with part of the heroes by whom he had been ſo nobly ſupported.

This reverſe did not damp the courage of LAMBRO: his genius and activity furniſhed him with freſh reſources. It was not long before he had a ſquadron almoſt as ſtrong as the former, with which he again made his appearance in the ARCHIPELAGO. It is certain that this extraordinary man would long have perplexed the PORTE, had he not had the inadvertence to diſoblige almoſt all the Greeks, by making an improper uſe of the credit and forces which he held from their generoſity; by imperiouſly requiring what was at firſt, on their part, only a voluntary offering; by tolerating the exceſſes in which the crews of his veſſels indulged themſelves; and if, in ſhort, in order to procure money, he had not, like a real pirate, taken the liberty of attacking and capturing indiſcriminately merchant-veſſels, which his intereſt even preſcribed to him to reſpect. A kerlanguiſch and a galley under his orders ventured, in May or June 1792, to attack and burn two French ſhips lying at anchor a league from NAPOLI DI ROMANIA, although there was in the ſeas of the LEVANT a diviſion of French frigates deſtined to protect our commerce.

In the mean time the PORTE, informed of the new armament of LAMBRO, and of the part which the Mainots were taking in it, had reinforced the ſquadron of the captain-pacha; and, at the ſame time, cauſed its troops of the MOREA to march, in order to attack the Mainots on the ſide of

MISITRA,

MISITRA, while the ſquadron ſhould act in the Gulfs of CORON and COLOKYTHIA, which was known to be LAMBRO's refuge.

At the time when M. DE CHOISEUL was informing M. DE ST. VALLIER, commander of the diviſion, of what was going on, M. DE VENEL, captain of the *MODESTE*, had arrived at CORON, in order to revenge the outrage committed on the French flag. Having learnt that LAMBRO was at anchor in PORTO QUAGLIO, he immediately made ſail for the purpoſe of forcing in his retreat this man, who was now no more than a dangerous pirate that it was neceſſary to haſten to deſtroy.

On the 17th of June, M. DE VENEL preſented himſelf off the harbour: he found it well fortified, and in a good ſtate of defence. In a ſmall cove, ſituated by the ſide of the harbour, was a cutter moored with a ſpring on her cable, and protected by two batteries erected on ſhore: it was by this part that M. DE VENEL reſolved to commence his attack. While he was preparing for battle, he ſaw arrive the ſquadron under the orders of HUSSEIN, who was come alſo with the intention of attacking LAMBRO's flotilla.

In the courſe of the day the French frigate had two engagements, during which ſhe greatly damaged the batteries, and in particular handled the cutter very roughly. Towards the evening, ſhe had a third action in concert with a Turkiſh frigate, and for the night, with a view of preventing any veſſel from making her eſcape either from the cove or the harbour, the captain-pacha ſent another frigate and three kerlanguiſchs, the command of which he gave to M. DE VENEL. On the 18th, the batteries of the cove ceaſed their fire, and the cutter was carried. On the ſame day, the French frigate, accompanied by two Turkiſh frigates and three kerlanguiſchs, went to attack PORTO QUAGLIO. LAMRRO's flotilla conſiſted of eleven veſſels of different ſizes. The engagement laſted all the reſt of the day. It was remarked, that

the whole of the enemy's fire was directed againſt the *Modeste*. Lambro was perſuaded, no doubt, that if he could cripple her, it would have been eaſy for him to eſcape from the forces of the pacha.

At night-fall a council of war was held on board the flag-ſhip; and it was reſolved, agreeably to the opinion of M. Peyron, lieutenant of the *Modeste*, that the French frigate ſhould cruiſe, as ſhe had done on the preceding nights, with the two Turkiſh frigates and the three kerlanguiſchs, and that at day-light ſhe ſhould force the entrance of the harbour, accompanied by the whole ſquadron.

According to this plan, the attack was renewed on the 19th at day-break. The ſilence of the batteries and of the veſſels at firſt excited ſurpriſe; but it was ſoon diſcovered that all of them had been abandoned during the night. Lambro, and all the Greeks under his command, had made their eſcape among the Mainots, or, under favour of the night, had got off in their boats. The captain-pacha, delighted that he had been ſo ſucceſsful in his firſt eſſay, ſwore eternal friendſhip to the French, promiſed diſtinguiſhed protection to her ſeamen, thanked M. de Venel, diſtributed ſome money and ſome refreſhments to the crew of the *Modeste*, took poſſeſſion of the deſerted flotilla, and haſtened to return to Constantinople, to receive the congratulations of the great and the benedictions of the people.

CHAPTER

CHAPTER XIII.

Extent and population of the Iſland of Crete.—*Details reſpecting the productions of each province.—Plants of which the inhabitants make uſe.—Natural hiſtory.*

THE Iſland of CRETE is about ſixty leagues or thirty myriameters in length, from its moſt weſtern coaſt to Cape *SAMONIUM*, ſituated in the moſt eaſtern part. Its greateſt breadth, in paſſing by Mount IDA, is about thirteen leagues. It is but three from the head of the Gulf of MIRABEL to HIERA PETRA, and ſix or ſeven from RETIMO to the mouth of the rivulet called *MEGALO POTAMO:* but when a perſon travels on horſeback, the turnings which he is obliged to make, on account of the mountains, render the road every where as long again, independently of its being extremely rugged.

The north coaſt is much more ſinuous than the ſouth: it has a greater number of harbours and roadſteads: here are to be found excellent anchorages, while the ſouth coaſt affords but a few places where a ſhip can caſt anchor in ſafety.

The rivers are, in a manner, nothing more than torrents ſwelled in winter by the rains, and in the ſpring by the melting of the ſnow: few among them preſerve all the year a part of their waters; but there are a tolerably great number of ſprings, of which the inhabitants make uſe for the watering of the lands. True it is that the greater part of theſe ſprings iſſue ſo cloſe to the ſea-ſhore, that it is almoſt impoſſible to employ them for that purpoſe.

According to the regiſters of the collector of the karatch, the population of the Greeks muſt be eſtimated at one hundred and twenty thouſand: there are reckoned about twenty thouſand men paying that tax. If we next conſider the great number of janizaries regiſtered in the towns, and if we pay attention that ſome villages are almoſt entirely peopled by Turks, or partly by Turks and partly by Greeks, we ſhall be inclined to believe that there are in the iſland nearly as many of the one as of the other, and that the total amount of the population is two hundred and forty thouſand inhabitants.

If we may credit the merchants who have grown gray in their counting-houſes, and who have directed an obſerving eye to their commerce, the number of the Greeks is inſenſibly diminiſhing from the effect of ſervitude, from emigrations, from the diſcouragement to which a cultivator is ſubject, and from the continual exactions which they experience. Wretchedneſs occaſions the death of ſome from inanition in particular; it kills a great many children; it oppoſes the union of the two ſexes. We may preſume, that if the Porte do not change its ſyſtem in regard to the non-Muſſulmans, if it do not quickly decide on protecting them againſt its agents, the population of the Greeks will diſappear from the places occupied by the Turks, or the latter will be driven from the European continent on the firſt opportunity that ſhall preſent itſelf.

We have ſaid that the iſland was divided into three governments, ſubdivided into diſtricts or provinces: we ſhall take a look at the productions of each of them in particular.

In the moſt weſtern part, lie Kissamos to the north, and Selino to the ſouth, which divide into two portions the ground compriſed between that ſpace. Kissamos, whoſe name has been preſerved till our time without alteration, was formerly the harbour of Aptera: at this day it is a ſmall

town, which would be of ſome importance, had not the pachas prohibited the exportation of the commodities of the iſland, except from the chief place of their government.

This province is one of the beſt cultivated and the moſt productive of the iſland: it furniſhes a tolerably large quantity of oil and wine; it produces honey, wax, and ſilk: here very little barley and wheat are gathered. The greater part of its mountains are wooded: here are found ſcattered a great many common and holm oaks, the acorns of which allow the Greeks to breed a ſufficiently large number of hogs. Here are alſo ſeen a great many carob-trees, whoſe fruits are carried to CANEA. Above the village of *NOMALO*, ſituated on the firſt link of the chain of the WHITE MOUNTAINS, is a ſomewhat conſiderable foreſt of oaks, whence is drawn the greater part of the wood and charcoal that is conſumed at CANEA.

In this province, the vine deſerves ſome attention: it is cut ſo near the root, that there remains no apparent ſhoot; which does not prevent it from ſending forth ſeveral vigorous branches, and from yielding a tolerably great quantity of grapes. Thoſe who are the beſt cultivators, give but one hoeing to their vines, and never put to them any manure. They prefer employing it on lands intended for the reception of grain, or of ſome kitchen-garden plants.

When they wiſh to plant a vine, the inhabitants of KISSAMOS content themſelves with ſticking in the ground, to the depth of two feet, a pointed iron, and with ſetting their plant in the hole, at the ſame time pricking the earth all round by means of the ſame iron. This method is undoubtedly defective; but it ſaves the expenſes of plantations; and in a country where it is dangerous for a man to be richer than his neighbour, induſtry is always paralyzed. Beſides, why ſhould the Greek endeavour, in the country-places,

to

to double the produce of his field? He is ſatisfied if he have bread for his family: two or three caſks of wine are ſufficient for him; if he had five or ſix, it would be remarked: the ſoubachi would not want pretexts for informing againſt him, and the aga means for ſtripping him.

The wine of KISSAMOS is a claret, ſpirituous, and of a tolerably good quality: as it is not an article of commerce, becauſe the carriage to CANEA would be too expenſive, the Greeks and Muſſulmans make of it a rather great conſumption. The former convert a part of it into brandy for their winter ſtock, becauſe it keeps better, and takes up leſs room than wine.

The grapes are gathered in the beginning of Fructidor: at this period they have acquired their full maturity. They are carried to the preſs conſtructed in maſonry in the middle of the vineyard: there, they are heaped up, and left eight or ten days expoſed to the ſun. They are then trodden; and the unfermented wine is carried home, where it is poured into caſks. A fourth or a fifth part of water is generally added, and moſt of the inhabitants are in the habit of putting into the wine which they intend for the Turks, ſalt, plaſter, and even lime, in order to give it a tartneſs, which the latter are fond of, and hold in requeſt.

On the Gulf of KISSAMOS is a quarry of beautiful gypſum, which the Cretans work ill. The maſons of the country are acquainted with no other manner of converting it into plaſter, than by putting it pounded, to the thickneſs of five or ſix inches, into the baker's oven.

The fort of GRABUSA, ſituated on a ſteep iſlet, at the moſt weſtern and northern part of CRETE, is compriſed in the diſtrict of KISSAMOS. The Turks not being able to make themſelves maſters of this fort at the beginning of the laſt century, reſolved to corrupt the commander, and the latter was

immoral

immoral enough to hold out his hand to the gold that was offered to him, and cowardly enough to deliver up a place intrufted to him by the republic of VENICE. The junction of three fmall iflands and an advanced cape forms a natural harbour, in which the largeft fhips anchor in fafety. The population of the Turks of KISSAMOS is eftimated at upwards of a third of the inhabitants.

The province which lies to the fouth of that of KISSAMOS, has taken its name of SELINO, a fmall town built on the fouth coaft of the ifland, in the fituation formerly occupied by *LISSA*, or *LISSUS*, a place of little importance, of which PTOLEMY makes mention. It is very fertile, although it is almoft entirely mountainous. It furnifhes a little filk, honey, wax, and a tolerably large quantity of fruits, fuch as cherries, apricots, peaches, pears, and oranges. This is the only province where the chefnut-tree is cultivated: that tree is there abundant, and thrives exceedingly well on the fchiftofe hills and mountains of this country. The chefnuts are carried to CANEA, RETIMO, and CANDIA. In thofe towns they are eaten from the middle of Vendémiaire to the end of the fpring. Every year a rather large quantity is exported to SYRIA.

Oil is, however, the principal commodity of SELINO: it is reckoned better in this province, than in all the reft of the ifland. The merchants of CANEA generally eftablifh their fpeculations on the quantity and the quality of the oils of SELINO.

Wine, wheat, and barley, are in no great plenty. The population of the Turks is eftimated at a fourth or a fifth of the inhabitants.

After thefe two provinces come CIDONIA to the north, and SPHACHIA to the fouth: the latter extends to the eaft much more than the former; it is

is confidered as making part of the pachalik of CANDIA. We fhall return to it prefently, when we have faid a word of the provinces fituated to the north, comprifed in the pachalik of CANEA and in that of RETIMO.

CIDONIA, or KIDONIA, which has retained its name of the ancient city of the Cretans, produces oil, grain, cotton, flax, filk, honey, wax, fome fruits, and a tolerably large quantity of cheefe: its territory is, in general, extremely fertile. The neareft mountains which lie to the fouth, being more temperate and more cool than the territory of CANEA, yield a great many fruits: little wine, a great deal of oil, and a middling quantity of wheat and barley, are here produced.

The firft chain of the high mountains of SPHACHIA, which comes next, comprifed in the province of KIDONIA, is covered with fnow for four or five months. It is, in general, ftony and deftitute of earth: there are but a few narrow vallies which are fufceptible of culture. Here barley is fown in May, which is gathered in September. The harveft of this grain taking place, in the environs of the fea, at the beginning of May, it pretty frequently happens that the cultivator fows on thefe mountains the barley recently gathered in the plain. He may, in the fame manner, if he pleafe, come in October, and fow it again in the environs of the coaft. But as it has been found that new feed is not fo good as that which has lain fome time, it is only for want of other feed that recourfe is had to the former.

It is alfo on thefe mountains that the flocks are brought, as foon as the fnow is melted; and though the ground appears almoft naked, cattle here find a food, if not abundant, at leaft very relifhing, and very fit for giving to their milk and their flefh a quality which cannot be attained by thofe that are bred in the moft fertile places.

The

In the environs of CANEA, the population of the Turks is as numerous as that of the Greeks.

Three leagues from this town begins the province of *APOCORONA*, which extends to the eaſt as far as ARMIRO, and to the ſouth as far as the mountains of SPHACHIA. It preſents no particular culture: it is mountainous, and furniſhes in abundance oil, a ſmall quantity of barley and wheat, and very little wine: it is more peopled by Greeks than by Turks.

The province of RETIMO, which comes next, is one of the beſt cultivated and moſt productive of the iſland: it furniſhes a great deal of oil, a little barley and wheat, and a tolerably large quantity of wine. The riſing grounds and hills which ſkirt the ſhore of ARMIRO, are almoſt all covered with vines. On the neareſt mountains which lie to the ſouth, is to be remarked a foreſt of common and holm oaks, maples, and carob-trees, into which the inhabitants of RETIMO come to cut the wood that they ſtand in need of.

To the ſouth of RETIMO are the two provinces of *AÏON-VASSALI* and *AMARI*, the only ones that are compriſed in this pachalik: they furniſh wheat, barley, oil, and ſome fruits. The former, ſituated to the north-weſt of the other, furniſhes, beſides, excellent cheeſe, which is confounded, in trade, with that of SPHACHIA. The Greeks are more numerous than the Turks in the provinces of AÏON-VASSALI and AMARI.

The Sphachiots, as we have ſaid, inhabit the high mountains which extend from eaſt to weſt, from the province of SELINO as far as that of AMARI: they are conſidered as being compriſed in the pachalik of CANDIA, though the interior police and adminiſtration belong to themſelves. Independently of a great number of villages which are on theſe mountains, ſome are re-

 marked

marked towards the ſouth coaſt, and among others *Sphachia*, their chief place, where is a ſmall harbour that contains ſeven or eight large boats, of which the Sphachiots make uſe for their trade, and ſometimes too for the piracies which they practiſe in imitation of their anceſtors.

The Malteſe, in their excurſions, formerly frequented the harbour of Sphachia. They were well received there by the inhabitants, who were eager to furniſh them with proviſions and all the aſſiſtance which they wanted.

Sphachia produces ſcarcely any oil; but, to make the inhabitants amends, here are gathered a little wheat and a pretty conſiderable quantity of barley: it alſo furniſhes honey and wax. Its principal production conſiſts in little cheeſes made with ewe's milk, which are exported to Constantinople.

During the winter, the Sphachiots are in the habit of ſending their flocks towards the ſea-ſide, becauſe in that mild and rainy ſeaſon graſs is there in plenty; but, on the firſt warm weather in ſummer, they drive them back to browſe at home on the rich paſtures which the milder temperature and the gradual melting of the ſnow always maintain in a ſtate of verdure.

The wine which theſe Greeks make on the firſt link of the chain of their mountains, would be ſufficient for the wants of the whole year with a little economy; but they generally drink with ſo much intemperance during the three or four months which ſucceed that of the vintage, that they are obliged to drink pure water the remainder of the year. Few among them are prudent enough, it is ſaid, to uſe with ſobriety a liquor as wholeſome, when it is taken in moderation, as it is prejudicial when the doſe is too powerful.

The

The firſt province that is met with in the north part of the iſland, after quitting the territory of RETIMO, is called *NILO-POTAMO*: it extends to the ſouth-eaſt even beyond Mount IDA, and compriſes the diſtricts of *ARLO-POTAMO*, *LAMBIS*, *ARCADI*, and *RISO-CASTRO*. It yields wheat, barley, ſilk, flax, cotton, and ſome fruits: here is produced a rather large quantity of oil, though the greater part of the olive-trees neither receive manure nor hoeing, and are in ſome meaſure abandoned.

This province was formerly comprehended in the pachalik of RETIMO; but, about fifty years ago, a pacha of CANDIA, conſidering it as an excellent mine to be worked, warmly ſolicited the PORTE, and obtained, that it ſhould be annexed to his pachalik. This meaſure greatly contributed to diminiſh the number of the inhabitants, as well as the produce of the lands; for, independently of the exactions which were made on thoſe who were in eaſy circumſtances, the obligation to which the pacha ſubjects all the cultivators to carry their oils to CANDIA, where leſs is paid for them than at RETIMO, and the conſiderable increaſe of the expenſes reſulting from a greater diſtance and worſe roads, acroſs mountains which it is neceſſary to paſs—every thing has thrown the inhabitants into a ſort of diſcouragement of which the PORTE is ignorant, and to which the pacha has no intention of putting a ſtop. Satisfied with increaſing the produce of the cuſtoms, the latter gives himſelf little concern whether the inhabitants have to lament the meaſures which the PORTE has taken in regard to them.

In the territory of CANDIA are gathered very little cotton, a great deal of wheat and barley, and a conſiderable quantity of raiſins. Several cargoes of theſe laſt are ſhipped for SYRIA and EGYPT. The Muſſulmans of thoſe countries make them the principal ingredient in their ſherbets: the Chriſtians are in the habit of putting them into a certain quantity of water, and of leaving them to ferment for ten, twelve, or fifteen days, according to the

temperature of the air. They afterwards diſtil them, and obtain from them a very agreeable brandy. The preparation of theſe raiſins conſiſts in gathering them, when they are very ripe, and ſpreading them on the ground, expoſing them for ſeveral days to a burning ſun. They are afterwards ſtoned, and then packed up for carriage.

There are ſcarcely any olive-trees in the territory of CANDIA, although the ſoil is very fit for the culture of that tree. The Turks there are as numerous as the Greeks.

The Iſland of DIA, or of STANDIA, is ſituated three leagues to the north-eaſt by eaſt of CANDIA. It is about four miles long by two broad: its circumference is irregular: in its ſouth part, are three natural harbours, where ſhips of burden, bound to CANDIA, caſt anchor and unload a part of their cargo, becauſe the harbour of that town is not deep enough to receive them when they are fully laden. On their departure, they in like manner go and wait at DIA till boats bring them wherewith to complete their lading.

A ſhip of the line which might be driven by a too violent northerly wind towards CRETE, and which could not gain the Gulf of SUDA, or SPINA-LONGA, would find an aſylum at DIA. The middle harbour, called *PORTO DELLA MADONA*, is the beſt of the three: a veſſel may caſt anchor there in from ſix or eight fathoms water up to a conſiderable depth.

On doubling the eaſt point, you meet with a fourth harbour, by no means ſafe, rather ſhallow, and open to the eaſt wind, but ſheltered from the ſouth, weſt, and north-weſt. A merchant-veſſel, caught in a gale of wind, might in like manner here take refuge.

This

This iſland is lofty, rugged, and entirely calcareous: it neither is inhabited nor cultivated. The rock is every where naked, except towards the ſummit, where is perceived a ſoil which would be fit for the culture of the vine and the olive-tree. It appears that there were anciently in this ſpot ſome habitations, to judge from the heaps of ſtones and bricks to be found here. In various places are met with a whitiſh marble, which has never been worked, and ſome veins, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, of ſtreaked alabaſter, which is thought to be of the greateſt beauty.

On this iſland are a conſiderable quantity of rabbits: there are alſo ſome wild goats, which it is difficult to ſee and to ſhoot at, becauſe they keep in places inacceſſible to man. We here ſaw, beſides, ſeveral cats of different colours, which we preſumed to have belonged to veſſels caſt away.

The province of *Messara*, which lies to the ſouth of that of Candia, is the moſt fertile and the moſt agreeable of the iſland: it has, among others, a very beautiful plain ſix leagues in extent, in which are gathered in abundance wheat, barley, flax, cotton, and a variety of fruits. It is croſſed by a ſmall river at this day called *Malognithi*, and formerly known by the name of *Lethe*. It paſſes by the ſide of the ruins of *Gortyna*, and empties itſelf into the ſea facing the Paximadi Iſlands.

When the Romans had conquered the iſlands, and humbled the pride of Cnossus, Gortyna became the moſt conſiderable and the moſt beautiful city of Crete. It had two harbours to the ſouth, one of which named *Metallum*, ſituated oppoſite to two iſlets, is to be found again in the word *Metala*, which this place ſtill bears. The other, called Lebena, was five or ſix leagues more to the eaſtward.

Three

Three leagues to the north of thefe ruins, is feen the famous labyrinth, which might be taken for an old quarry of foft, calcareous ftone, or for a place of habitation, capable of containing a whole colony, had not ancient authors faid that it was conftructed by DÆDALUS, on the model of the labyrinth of EGYPT, and that it ferved as a place of confinement for the Minotaur.

The wheat of MESSARA is one of the beft of TURKEY: it yields a great deal of flour, and makes an excellent bread. Cultivators convey it on the back of their affes to CANDIA, to RETIMO, and even to CANEA; and, however plentiful the harveft may be, they never keep any for themfelves. As well as the other cultivators of the ifland, they live all the year on a very coarfe barley-bread. The pure wheat is referved for the agas and for the rich inhabitants of the towns.

This province is juftly reckoned the granary of CRETE. All the lands are in culture, and they commonly produce fifteen or twenty for one; while elfewhere the cultivator is well fatisfied if he obtain fix or eight times the feed which he has intrufted to the beft grounds: true it is that their culture is much neglected, and that they feldom receive manure. The Turks here are more numerous than the Greeks.

The province of MIRABEL, which lies to the eaft of that of CANDIA, is populous, fertile, and abundant in oil, grain, and fruit. Formerly the inhabitants faw feveral French veffels come to the road of MIRABEL and the harbour of SPINA-LONGA, in order to load with oil, which kept up its price, and diffufed among them a degree of comfort which they no longer enjoy, fince they have been forced to carry it, at a great expenfe, to CANDIA, and to fell it at a low price to the Turkifh proprietors of the foap-houfes eftablifhed in that town.

Cultivators, difcouraged by this inconfiderate order, neglect from day to day their olive-trees, and make, befides, a greater confumption of oil and olives than they did before. They falt a large quantity of this fruit, which they make the principal article of their fubfiftence. They alfo eat a great many wild herbs as a falad, or fried with oil; and thus it is that the pacha of CANDIA, who hoped to increafe the produce of the cuftoms, by preventing the fraud which might have been committed far from his fight, has, on the contrary, feen that produce imperceptibly diminifh, becaufe they no longer export from this province one half of the oils which were thence exported formerly.

The road of MIRABEL faces the eaft, and affords to veffels, which may put in there, a tolerably fafe anchorage. It is fheltered and defended by two fmall iflands fituated in front. The town has greatly diminifhed fince commerce has taken another direction. Here are, nevertheleefs, ftill reckoned fifteen hundred inhabitants, the greater part Greeks and cultivators.

SPINA-LONGA, which lies a few leagues more to the north, is one of the beft harbours of the ifland. It is formed by a peninfula which fecures it from the eafterly winds. Its entrance faces the north north-eaft; but it is fheltered and protected by an iflet on which the Venetians had built a fortrefs fimilar to that of SUDA. For a long time the Turks made fruitlefs attempts to render themfelves mafters of this fortrefs: it was not till the beginning of the laft century that the Venetians permitted them to take poffeffion of it.

The province of *HIERA-PETRA*, or *GERA PETRA*, is to the fouth of that of MIRABEL: like the latter, it produces oil, grain, various fruits, honey, wax, flax, &c.; but it fuffers equally from the prohibition which the pacha has iffued of felling commodities any where but at CANDIA. French veffels

came

came formerly to load with oil in the road of HIERA-PETRA: in order to ſell that commodity, the inhabitants are at this day obliged to make by land a trip which requires three or four days' journey.

The town, known in ancient times under the names of *CYRBA*, *CAMYRUS*, and *HIERA PYTNA*, is at the preſent hour no more than a village, whoſe population is daily diminiſhing. Its roadſtead is too much expoſed to the ſoutherly winds, and particularly to the *ſirocco*, to be frequented. The European veſſels which came thither formerly, haſtened to take in their cargo and to get away.

The province of *SETTIA* occupies all the eaſtern part of the iſland: it is the moſt extenſive, but the leaſt peopled, and the leaſt productive, though it is, in a great meaſure, ſuſceptible of culture, and though moſt of its lands are of the greateſt fertility. But the remoteneſs from the capital, the want of harbours, the inconſiderate injuſtice of the agas—every thing concurs to render the inhabitants of this part of the iſland more indolent than the others. Contented with gathering corn and fruit for their ſubſiſtence, oil for paying their taxes, and procuring themſelves a few clothes, and the utenſils neceſſary for their family, they endeavour not to ſnatch from the earth a ſurplus of productions, with which they would be embarraſſed, or of which their agas would not fail to take poſſeſſion.

The town is ſituated on a flat ſhore, which a cape not much advanced, and three iſlets placed at upwards of a league's diſtance, protect but feebly from the north and north-eaſt winds. It was tolerably well fortified, and ſufficiently peopled, when the Venetians were maſters of the iſland: they had there conſtructed a mole, in order to ſhelter the veſſels which came thither to load with the productions of the province, or which brought thoſe claimed

by

by the wants of the inhabitants. At SETTIA are at this day ſeen none but ſmall boats: the population has diminiſhed conſiderably, and the fortifications are not kept in the leaſt order.

Mount DICTÆ occupies in this province an extent ſomewhat conſiderable, in a direction from eaſt to weſt. Although it is one of the moſt elevated points of the iſland next to Mount IDA and the WHITE MOUNTAINS, its top is not covered with ſnow: it is only more cool and more moiſt than the mountains in the environs of the ſea, and would be very well calculated for the feeding of a great number of flocks.

The carob-tree, a tree of moderate ſize which grows without culture all over the iſland, and particularly delights in ſtony grounds and in the clefts of rocks, is here more abundant than any where elſe: it has an agreeable port, a foliage always green, flowers very ſmall, without corollas; brown fruits, flattened in the form of pods, and a wood very hard, veined, of a beautiful deep red, very fit for cabinet and inlaid work; but what depreciates this wood, is that it is very ſubject to rot when the tree grows old: its blea, beſides, is too conſiderable, too tender, and of a whitiſh colour.

The fruits of the carob-tree are conveyed to CONSTANTINOPLE, into SYRIA, and into EGYPT: they ſerve for food to the poor and to children; the latter are very fond of chewing the ſweet and luſcious pulp which they contain. Mixed with liquorice-root, raiſins, and other different fruits, it ſerves for compoſing the ſherbets of which the Muſſulmans make a daily uſe.

Among the great number of wild or cultivated plants on which the inhabitants of CRETE ſubſiſt, we ſhall remark:

The leaves of kidney-beans, boiled and fried with olive-oil.

The leaves of chich-peas, boiled and raw, as a ſalad.

The leaves and the flowers of pumpkins, boiled.

The leaves of vines, boiled and pickled with vinegar.

The leaves of horſeradiſh, boiled.

The leaves and the tops of muſtard and of a great number of cruciform plants, boiled and fried.

The leaves and the ſtems of blite, boiled.

The leaves of ſeveral ſpecies of oraches, boiled.

The leaves and the ſtems of common black night-ſhade *, boiled.

The leaves of corn, or red poppy †, boiled.

The leaves of mallow, boiled.

The young ſhoots of wild or acute-leaved aſparagus ‡, boiled.

The ſtems of the common rough bindweed §, and of the lofty-climbing oriental bindweed ||, boiled.

Prickly chicory, raw, as a ſalad.

Dandelion, and a great number of chicoraceous plants, as a ſalad.

The leaves of various ſpecies of ſcorzonera, as a ſalad.

The greater part of the campanulas, valerians, and ſcabiouſes, as a ſalad.

The leaves of bramble, boiled, and the tender tops, raw, as a ſalad.

The ears of green maize, raw.

The roots of parſley, boiled, as a ſalad, and as a ragout.

The ſtems and the leaves of fennel, boiled, as a ſalad, and pickled in vinegar.

The fruits of the *love-apple* ¶, boiled, and as a ragout, or as ſeaſoning. *A cultivated plant.*

The leaves and the buds of the thornleſs caper-buſh, pickled in vinegar.

* *Solanum nigrum.* LINN. † *Papaver rhœas.* LINN. ‡ *Aſparagus acutifolius.* LINN.

§ *Smilax aſpera.* LINN. || *Smilax excelſa.* LINN. ¶ *Solanum licoperſicum.* LINN.

Among the cultivated plants, we remarked the briſtly-leaved corchorus, or common Jew's mallow*, which we again ſaw in ſtill greater abundance in EGYPT. Its leaves are eaten with pleaſure, during the whole ſummer, as a ragout or ſimply boiled, ſqueezed, and ſeaſoned with olive-oil. Care is taken to ſow the ſeeds from the end of the winter to the end of the ſpring, in watered places. The plant is annual, branchy, and riſes to the height of two feet.

Ketmia, or *bamia*†, known in the ANTILLES under the name of *gombeau*, is alſo cultivated, not only in CRETE, but throughout the LEVANT. Its fruit, from three to four inches long, is gathered from the end of Prairial to Fructidor, and eaten as a ragout alone, with different ſeaſoning, and more frequently mixed with meat: it is inſipid, viſcous, and by no means difficult of digeſtion. The ſeeds are ſown towards the end of the winter in watered places. This annual plant would thrive very well in the South of FRANCE.

To this liſt we might add the greater part of the kitchen-garden plants cultivated in EUROPE.

It is to be regretted that the potatoe is not known to the inhabitants of GREECE; it would certainly grow under the ſhade of the cheſnut-tree of SELINO, on the WHITE MOUNTAINS, on Mount IDA, on Mount DICTÆ, and on all the elevated and cool places of the iſland. It would contribute to render independent the Sphachiots, whom the want of ſubſiſtence frequently calls to the maritime towns of the north coaſt: it would ſave the corn which, in general, runs ſhort in this country: it would afford to all the Greeks a wholeſome food which would not excite the envy of the greedy

* *Corchorus olitorius.* LINN.—Corète potagère, LAMARCK. *Encyclop.*

† *Hibiſcus eſculentus.* LINN.—Ketmie comeſtible, LAMARCK. *Encyclop.*

Muſſulman. It is to be hoped that the Sphachiots will one day be indebted for this benefit to the European merchants who reſide at CANEA, or to the Greeks whom commerce at this day attracts to the principal cities of EUROPE.

When we caſt our eye on the alimentary productions which the iſland furniſhes, and which might be multiplied with the greateſt facility, we are aſtoniſhed that the Greek cultivators are reduced to live, the whole year, on barley-bread, ſalted olives, and wild plants. It ſeldom happens that they indulge themſelves in the uſe of more delicate aliments: they prefer ſelling them in order to diſcharge the taxes, or pay the too frequent extortions of heir agas. The inhabitants of the towns, and particularly the Europeans, live tolerably well at little expenſe. Mutton is every where excellent, and ſcarcely coſts two ſous the pound. Pork, bred and fed in moſt of the Greek villages, is exquiſite, eſpecially when it is young: it is cheaper than mutton, becauſe the Turks dare not eat it. Lambs and kids appear on the ſhambles of the three principal towns, during ſeveral months of the year. From the end of the ſummer, are ſeen to come in abundance the quail, the turtle, the ring-dove, the loriot, the roller, the thruſh, and a great number of fig-peckers, which are very delicate eating. The woodcock comes thither ſomewhat later, and there paſſes the winter. The blackbird remains there all the year: it is very fat in winter, and is very well taſted. In ſpring and ſummer, larks, ortolans, and a great many ſmall birds, ſupply the place of the birds of paſſage. The hare and the partridge are every where very common; the francolin and the bartavelle or Greek red partridge, are more ſcarce. We ſaw not rabbits in great numbers, except on the ſmall iſlands in the vicinity of CRETE. The argali and the wild goat are in tolerable plenty on the mountains and in the ſteep places. The villagers kill them ſometimes by waiting to ſhoot at them from a place of concealment, and come to ſell them at CANDIA, RETIMO, and CANEA. They alſo bring thither ſome poultry,

which

which fatten in the fields on ſeeds and inſects that are there to be found. The turkey-cock, in particular, is remarkable for its ſize, the delicacy of its fleſh, and the low price at which it is obtained: for a piaſtre, or about two livres (20d. ſterling). a turkey may be purchaſed, weighing from twelve to fifteen pounds, and for one livre a bird of the ſame ſpecies, that weighs ſeven or eight. Beef is ſcarce, and the ox is little uſed but in country labour.

There are few countries in the LEVANT which afford a greater variety of intereſting vegetables than the Iſland of CRETE. The botaniſt may hope to reap there, in all ſeaſons, a harveſt more or leſs abundant. In fact, when the heat has parched up the earth, and burnt the greater part of the plants in the plains and on the hills in the vicinity of the ſea, then DICTÆ, IDA, and SPHACHIA, which are ſituated in a temperature more mild and more moiſt, are covered with flowers of every ſpecies.

If the botaniſt quit theſe elevated places in the firſt rains of autumn, he is ſurpriſed to find under his feet a yellow-flowered ranunculus, tolerably fragrant, worthy of figuring in the gardens of floriſts; a ſweet-ſmelling, white narciſſus; ſeveral hyacinths, two ſpecies of ſaffron, a crocus, a day-lily, &c. Preſently he ſees the mandrake, the virtues of which empirics have extolled, but of which the wiſe phyſician is miſtruſtful as a venomous plant. The arboreſcent lucern flowers before the end of autumn. In Nivôſe, Pluviôſe, and Ventôſe, all the riſing grounds are covered with ranunculuſes, anemones, ixias, crocuſes, iriſes, and a great number of cruciform plants; to which ſucceed rapidly orchiſes, labiatæ, rock-roſes, ſome umbellatæ, and moſt of the leguminous plants. In the middle of ſummer are found ſome late plants, and a great number of buſhes and ſhrubs, ſuch as ſavories, thymes, ſtachys, oleanders, myrtles, &c. and towards the end of the ſummer, ſome ſyngeneſia, among which is to be remarked the gummy-rooted atractylis.

The

The other branches of natural hiſtory are no leſs intereſting than that of the plants: land-ſhells, for example, are here very common and very numerous. Independently of the ſpecies of EUROPE, here are to be found a great number which are not known to naturaliſts. We ſhall for the preſent content ourſelves with giving an account of ſome of them.

1. The *flat-ſpired* helix (*PLATE XVII. fig.* 7. *a*, *b*, *c*.). It keeps, during the ſummer, in the clefts of rocks, whence it probably does not iſſue till the early rains of autumn. The firſt time that we ſaw it, we were obliged to employ wedges for the purpoſe of ſplitting the rock. It is remarkable, from the firſt volute of the ſpire being convex and rounded, and from the others being flattened. If the ſhell be young (c), the firſt volute of the ſpire is ſharp-edged. We likewiſe met with it at RHODES.*

2. On ſome ſhrubs is found the *faſciolated* bulimus (*fig.* 5.), whoſe mouth is oval, brown within, and white on the edges. The ſhell is fuſiform, white, with a great number of lines of a deep rufous colour, which imperceptibly diſappear as it grows old. We ſaw it again at RHODES, in SYRIA, and in CARAMANIA†.

Among the bulimi, which are to be found in the rocks, are to be remarked:

3. The *twiſted-necked* bulimus (*fig.* 4. *a*, *b*.) It is of a rufous white: its mouth is almoſt round, a little oval; the margin is ſlightly expanded, and

* HELIX ſpiriplana *mediocris, depreſſa, umbilicata, circulis interruptè guttulatis notata; anfractu primo convexo, cæteris diſcoïdeo planiſſimis; apertura collo continuato ſuborbiculata candida.*

† BULIMUS faſciolatus *parvus, oblongus, albidus, longitudinaliter fuſco multilineatus; apertura intus tota fuſca, labio ſimplici albo.*

diſplays

displays within, on the right side, two small folds not very apparent. The neck is free and quadrangular. The last volutes of the spire are cut as in the decollated bulimus *.

4. The *blunt* bulimus (*fig.* 2. *a. b.*) has an oval mouth, slightly bidentated, and reddish within. Each spire has a great number of very elevated lines. The extremity is always truncated when the shell has attained its full size †.

5. The *taper* bulimus (*fig.* 6. *a*, *b.*) is elongated, striated, and formed of fifteen or sixteen spires. The mouth is oval, a little oblong: it has within two folds on the side of the columella, more or less marked. The last spires are of a deep blackish blue ‡.

6. The *inflated* bulimus (*fig.* 3. *a*, *b.*) is not so long, and more inflated than the preceding; its striæ are more apparent: those of the last volute form wrinkles well marked. There are only twelve or thirteen volutes to its spire. The mouth is oval, and slightly bidentated: the extremity appears as if obstructed by some accessary folds ||.

Lizards do not commonly inspire as much fright as serpents: not one is known to be venomous; and nevertheless, in several places, we find an opinion established that some of these reptiles are extremely dangerous. The

* Bulimus torticollis *sinister, parvulus, dilute rubiginosus, valdè truncatus, subcylindricus; collo libero, angustato, subquadrato; apertura subrotunda.*

† Bulimus retusus *sinister, parvulus decollatus, fusiformi-cylindraceus, totus conspicue plicato-striatus, obsolete albeus; apertura ovali, introrsum obscure biplicata, rufidula.*

‡ Bulimus teres *sinister, parvulus, anguste fusiformis, obsolete striolatus, cum vertice atrato albidus; anfractibus planissimis; apertura ovato-oblonga, obscurè bidentata.*

|| Bulimus inflatus *sinister, parvulus, ventricoso fusiformis, cum vertice atrato lacteus; leviter striolatus; apertura ovali, obscurè bidentata, alba.*

first

firſt time that we ſaw the ocellated ſcink (*Plate XVI. fig.* 1.), ſome Greeks who were with us ſhrunk back with horror, as if they had perceived the moſt dangerous viper. It was much worſe when they ſaw us take it in our hand: they thought us undone. We wiſhed to undeceive them reſpecting the ſuppoſed venom of this reptile, by ſuffering ourſelves to be bitten: but we did not attain our object. The ignorant, as is well known, do not eaſily get the better of an error. Theſe Greeks were then perſuaded either that we were ſorcerers (for they believe in all fooleries of this kind), or that we were acquainted with an antidote for the venom of this animal.

This ſcink lives in the ſand in Crete, Cyprus, and Egypt, and not in the houſes, as is aſſerted by Forskal.

All its body is covered with little imbricated, ſmooth, ſhining ſcales: it is of a yellowiſh gray beneath, and of a grayiſh green above, with oblique, tranſverſal rows of hexagonal, black ſpots, each marked with a ſmall quadrangular white ſpot. The tail, in ſome individuals, is in proportion longer than the ſpecies repreſented, and is marked with the ſame ſort of ſpots as the body. The feet are ſhort; the toes are ſlender, long, and terminated by a very diſtinct claw. This ſcink runs with tolerable nimbleneſs*.

The lizard the moſt common in all the iſlands of the Archipelago, in Crete, in the Morea, on the eaſt coaſt of Natolia, in Egypt, and in Syria, is the *ſtellio*, named by the Greeks, *cocordilos*†. It has the body

* Stincus occellatus *ſupra griſeo-viresſcens, maculis nigris hexagonis puncto albo notatis.* *Lacerta* ocellata *cauda tereti, imbricata, brevi.* Forskal. *Deſcript. Animal,* page 13. *Lacerta ocellata.* Gmel. *Syſt. Nat.* vol. i. pars. iii. p. 1077.

† Tournefort, *Voyage au Levant,* vol. i. p. 313. *Lacerta ſtellio.* Linn. *Syſt. Nat.* p. 361. No. 10. *Le ſtellion,* Lacépède. *Quadr. Ovip.* vol. i. p. 369.

mixed

mixed with gray, yellowiſh, and brown; the head and the back covered with ſcales, ſimple or tubercled, and pointed. The ſcales of the feet are more turned up, and more pointed, than thoſe of the back. The tail is verticillated, and covered with prickly ſcales. This lizard acquires ten or twelve inches in length. It lives on inſects, and does no miſchief. It is ſeen to ſeek the ſun in ſummer: in winter it keeps in holes, and there paſſes that ſeaſon in a ſort of torpor.

CHAPTER XIV.

State of agriculture and of induſtry in Crete.—*Character of the Turks.—Precautions which they take againſt the plague.—Export and import trade of this iſland.*

FAR from the rod of the Turks, and under the ſhield of their privileges, the Greeks of the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO, aſſured of being able to enjoy, to a certain degree, the fruit of their labours, in general, cultivate their fields, or apply themſelves to ſome induſtry with ſufficient ardour and intelligence. But in CRETE, expoſed inceſſantly to ſee their crops taken away from them by the aga, to be ſtripped of their property by the pacha, to be inſulted, cudgelled, and robbed by every janizary, the cultivators are never inclined to ſnatch from the earth, by an increaſe of labour, a produce which they would ſee paſs into the hands of thoſe whom they have ſo much reaſon to hate.

The fields which they cultivate, planted by their anceſtors when a civilized, induſtrious, and trading people * governed the iſland, and favoured agriculture, are running to waſte from day to day: the olive-tree periſhes, the vine diſappears; the ſoil is waſhed away by the rains; yet theſe unfortunate Greeks, diſheartened as they are, think not of repairing the damages which time is inceſſantly occaſioning them. There is nothing but the preſſing want of living and of paying the taxes that can induce them to gather their olives, ſow their lands, and give their attention to a few bees.

* The Venetians.

Induſtry

Induſtry is almoſt null in the Greek villages ſubject to the agas. It is not without trembling that the inhabitants there make a few coarſe cloths, and the moſt ſimple implements of huſbandry. The women are ſcarcely ever employed but in mending the old rags which they and their huſbands wear as long as they can. When they dreſs themſelves in new clothes, which happens but ſeldom, they avoid ſhowy colours and ſtuffs of a certain price. They know that their ſuit would be taken away from them by the ſoubachi, or by ſome other Turk, and would even expoſe them to outrages.

This is not the caſe in SPHACHIA. The Greek of thoſe mountains is at the ſame time ſhepherd, agriculturiſt, and artiſan. He turns to a pretty good account the lands which he poſſeſſes; he breeds, with ſufficient intelligence and ſucceſs, a great number of cattle; he manufactures with tolerable ſkill the cloths with which he clothes himſelf, the utenſils of which he makes uſe, and the implements which he employs. But the Sphachiot has preſerved, as we have ſaid before, the energy of the independent man, and the activity of him who enjoys without moleſtation the fruit of his labour.

The Turkiſh villages preſent not ſo much wretchedneſs as thoſe belonging to the Greeks, becauſe the cultivator is much more ſure of his property, and may without fear improve it by every means in his power. Independently of the taxes which he pays, being, in general, leſs burdenſome; independently of his being exempt from perſonal impoſt, it ſeldom happens that too revolting an injuſtice is committed in regard to him, becauſe the inhabitants are ever ready to riſe and defend him among them who ſhould be oppreſſed.

Notwithſtanding ſo many advantages, neither agriculture nor induſtry are in vigour among them. Being almoſt all enrolled among the janizaries, they depend on the pay which they have to receive; they alſo depend on the ex-

tortions which they never fail to commit on the Greeks whenever they have an opportunity. It might be ſaid that, like voracious and lazy drones, the Turks have come to eſtabliſh themſelves on a foreign land only for the purpoſe of conſuming there, without trouble and without care, the ſubſiſtence which others draw from the earth by their labour, or procure themſelves from abroad by their induſtry.

The character of theſe foreigners is ſo ſtrongly marked, that a traveller finds them the ſame into whatever country of the empire he tranſports himſelf. The Turks of EUROPE, nevertheleſs, are reckoned to be more courageous, more ferocious, but not ſo ignorant nor ſo honeſt as thoſe of ASIA. Thoſe of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of the principal maritime towns, are, in general, ſomewhat more mild, ſomewhat better informed, than thoſe who live up the country. Thoſe of the Iſland of CRETE are diſtinguiſhed for their malice, their good look, and their intelligence.

Whether the Sphachiots, whoſe courage they have experienced, and with whoſe hoſtile diſpoſition they are acquainted, render them miſtruſtful, or whether the great number of other Greeks by whom the iſland is peopled, equally obliges them to keep on their guard, the Turks, here more than elſewhere, are always inclined to put a Greek to death with their own hands, or ſend him to execution, under the ſmalleſt pretext. Falſe witneſſes make no ſcruple of appearing before the tribunals, when the queſtion is legally to get rid of a man whoſe property is coveted and whoſe courage is dreaded.

No one is ignorant that, in the capital, it has been ſometimes propoſed to recur to a general meaſure, and to cut off in one day all the Greeks of the empire: but intereſt has always withheld the arm when ready to ſtrike. In CRETE, recourſe will infallibly be had to this atrocious meaſure, if the iſland were threatened by an European power. We are perſuaded, that on the firſt danger

danger the Turks of this iſland would not fail to ſeize, indiſcriminately, all the Greeks who might be in a condition to carry arms, and to ſacrifice them to their own ſafety, unleſs that power ſhould have taken beforehand the precaution of tranſmitting arms ſecretly, and of ſcreening, by that means, theſe unfortunate beings from the murderous ſword of their oppreſſors.

The Turks are, in general, handſomer than the Europeans. Their ſtature is not taller; but their features are more regular; their countenance is commonly more agreeable, and more expreſſive. Do they owe this advantage to their inactive life, to the climate which they inhabit, to the aliments which they uſe, to the comfort which they almoſt all enjoy, or muſt we attribute the cauſe of it to thoſe ſlaves, generally rather handſome, who have brought them into the world? What would induce us to believe that the more general beauty of the women, in TURKEY, contributes greatly to the beauty of the men, is that the Turks of CRETE, who, ſince they have occupied the iſland, are in the habit of marrying, in the *kapin* manner, the handſomeſt Greek girls of the country, are ſtill handſomer than thoſe of the reſt of TURKEY.

They are alſo more intelligent: to ſee them and hear them, one would imagine that they have received from their mothers a few ſparks of that brilliant wit, of that ſhrewd ſagacity, with which the Greeks are endowed, and which they have preſerved, even in ſlavery.

Theſe Turks are the only ones in the empire, who, notwithſtanding the prejudices of their nation, have ventured to ſubmit to a ſort of quarantine all ſtrangers who come from a country infeſted with the plague. They even carry precaution ſo far as to prohibit their ports to veſſels that have on board ſick ſuſpected to have that diſorder, unleſs they bring proviſions of which the iſland ſtands in great need; and in that caſe they, by every known means, hinder

hinder the plague from being introduced among them. But as they cannot prevent the access of a Turkish ship of war, nor subject her to the salutary regulations of the island, the precautions which they take with respect to others, are very often insufficient. In fact, the galiondgis, from whatever country they come, and whatever may be their state of health, are eager to get on shore, land their effects, and communicate with the inhabitants of the town and country. Thus it was that a kerlanguisch belonging to the PORTE, arrived from CANEA, in the year IV. (1796), brought thither a plague of the most contagious and most destructive nature, which in less than two years visited the whole island, and carried off upwards of one-fourth of the inhabitants. It had not yet ceased when we left CONSTANTINOPLE, in the year VI. (1798), although it had, for several months past, lost much of its malignity.

Another law, less wise no doubt, which results from the too small quantity of corn that the island furnishes, subjects vessels laden with grain and other provisions, which happen to put into one of its harbours, to sell their cargo before they get under sail again. And were the island provided with a sufficient abundance of provisions to be sold at a very low price, the captain could not obtain permission to carry his commodity elsewhere without making a present to the pacha, to the custom-house officer, and to the corps of janizaries.

In the principal towns, it is a pleasure to see public granaries which were probably constructed in the time of the Venetians. These consist of large square pits in masonry, coated with a cement capable of securing from humidity the grain contained in them. The opening is narrow, and carefully closed. Corn keeps very well in these pits, provided they are not too damp. They are very common in ITALY, and throughout the EAST: their form is more frequently oval, and very much swelled in the middle. We might have

 recourse

recourſe to them with the ſame advantage in FRANCE, and, as occaſion required, make uſe of thoſe vats in maſonry which the inhabitants are in the habit of conſtructing in moſt of the wine-countries.

The corn which is gathered in CRETE not being ſufficient for the conſumption of the inhabitants, there comes every year a tolerably large quantity from VOLO, from SALONICA, from the MOREA, from SYRIA, and ſometimes from EGYPT.

Wine is made only in a few diſtricts of the iſland: in ſome others, the inhabitants prefer carrying their grapes to the town, or drying them for trade. Thoſe who have no wine diſpenſe with it, and drink water: it ſeldom happens that any is brought to them from the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

The mulberry-tree vegetates very well in CRETE. Silk-worms thrive there wonderfully, and, nevertheleſs, that tree is ſcarce. Every year is brought from SYRIA the ſilk neceſſary for the manufacture of a few ſtrings and a few ribands, which are exported to CONSTANTINOPLE. Some cloths in ſilk and cotton, and in ſilk and flax, are alſo manufactured: the latter ſerve for making ſhirts and ſhifts, and are conſumed in the country.

Although flax is tolerably plentiful, yet it does not ſuffice for the wants of the inhabitants: they draw a great deal from EGYPT.

Cotton is little cultivated; that which is conſumed in this iſland, comes from SMYRNA and the environs of EPHESUS.

There arrive alſo from this latter place buffalo-hides and ox-hides, and coarſe ſheep-ſkins, for the uſe of the mountaineers, who make of them a ſort of boot which reaches to the knee.

Seſamum

Sesamum is cultivated in a small quantity: in the towns, its seed is mixed with bread, in order to give the latter more flavour. Here the inhabitants are not in the habit of extracting oil from it, as is practised in some islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, in some districts of SYRIA, and in a good part of PERSIA and INDIA.

The only articles of exportation from the Island of CRETE, are oil, soap, wax, honey, cheese, raisins, almonds, walnuts, chesnuts, ST. JOHN's bread, linseed, and liquorice-root.

The oil that the island can furnish in a good season is estimated at two hundred thousand milleroles*. Of this the French draw nearly one-fourth: the Italians and Germans take off a small quantity: the people of the country make a great consumption of it for their food. All the rest is consumed by the soap-houses.

Next to oil, soap is one of the most important articles of exportation. It passes to TUNIS, to CONSTANTINOPLE, and into all the towns of the LEVANT. It is not so good as that of MARSEILLES for washing and cleaning linen; but, nevertheless, the Turks prefer it, because it is cheaper, and is, besides, almost as good as ours for washing their body, shaving their head, and for the other uses to which they apply it.

At CANDIA, there are twenty-five soap-houses, which employ the greater part of the oils of the province, and of those situated in the east part of the island. There were formerly several French houses in that town, which exported to MARSEILLES part of the oils which were gathered in the environs. Cargoes of it were also shipped at SPINA-LONGA, MIRABEL, SETTIA, and

* A measure of MARSEILLES, which is equal to sixty-six *pintes*, PARIS measure.

GERA-

GERA-PETRA; but the merchants have been obliged, by degrees, to abandon their eſtabliſhments, becauſe the Turks, who wiſhed to make themſelves maſters of all the oils of theſe countries for their ſoap-houſes, frequently raiſed the populace againſt them, and put their life in danger. It may be expected that one day the ſame thing will happen at CANEA. The French houſes there maintain themſelves only becauſe the preſent cuſtom-houſe officer is a man of weight, and finds a greater profit in the extraction of the oil made by the Europeans, than in that of the ſoap made by the Turks; for the Europeans pay in CRETE three per cent. of the value of merchandiſe, while the Turks there pay only two and a half. The Greeks, the Jews, and the Armenians, pay five per cent.

Although oils are in great abundance in the environs of RETIMO, there are to the preſent day no more than eight ſoap-houſes in that town, becauſe the French eſtabliſhed at CANEA alſo ſhip there ſeveral cargoes of oil, and becauſe the greater part of theſe manufactories belong to Jews under the protection of FRANCE. If the Turks ſucceed in getting poſſeſſion of all theſe ſoap-houſes, which they frequently attempt, the French merchants will be obliged to relinquiſh the oils of RETIMO, becauſe the Turks will then tax the oils of that province, as they have done at CANDIA, and reſerve to themſelves alone all the profits.

There are twenty ſoap-houſes at CANEA, which employ the oils of the provinces of KISSAMOS, SELINO, and KIDONIA; but theſe oils are in ſuch plenty, that the French houſes eſtabliſhed in that town diſpatch to MARSEILLES, during the year of the gathering and the following, to the value of from one to two millions of our livres.

The wax which is not conſumed in the iſland, is purchaſed by the French merchants, who ſend it to MARSEILLES. This article, which is

generally of the value of from 12 to 15,000 livres, amounts ſometimes to 30,000, and even more.

The honey is of little importance: it paſſes to CONSTANTINOPLE and into EGYPT.

The exportation of cheeſe from SPHACHIA and the environs is eſtimated at upwards of 30,000 livres: it almoſt all goes to CONSTANTINOPLE.

Raiſins are a conſiderable article of exportation. They are ſent to EGYPT and to SYRIA. A few years before our arrival, an Engliſh veſſel took in a cargo of theſe, which, undoubtedly, did not anſwer, as no other veſſel belonging to that nation has ſince preſented herſelf for the ſame object. The raiſins of CRETE having large ſtones, being dirty, and frequently impregnated with earth, cannot ſuit the Engliſh, who put this fruit into their puddings. In the LEVANT, they are ſcarcely employed, except for making brandy and ſherbets.

The other fruits paſs into EGYPT and SYRIA, as well as liquorice-root. Linſeed is purchaſed by the Italians.

The French, one year with another, bring from MARSEILLES to the value of from 150 to 160,000 livres, in CARCASSONE woollen cloths, gilding, laces, and ſtuffs of LYONS, in imperial ſerges manufactured at NISMES, in ſmall ſhot, tin, iron, ſteel, coffee, ſugar, nutmegs, cloves, indigo, cochineal, paper, and in various articles of hard-ware.

From VENICE and from TRIESTE are brought glaſs-ware, hard-ware, and, above all, planks, the greater part of which ſerve for making ſoap-caſes The returns are made in oil, in ſoap, and in wax. As theſe commodities

are there of greater value than thoſe which are brought, the balance is paid in VENICE ſequins.

The inhabitants of the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO bring to CANDIA and CANEA, almoſt all the wood neceſſary for the ſoap-houſes; they procure it either in CARAMANIA, or in GREECE. Every year there arrive ten or twelve boats, each valued at 12 or 1500 piaſtres. They take in return oil and ſoap.

The Cretans themſelves carry on ſome trade: they draw from SALONICA, corn, cotton, tobacco, and iron; from CONSTANTINOPLE, BURSA ſtuffs, ANGORA *châlits*, ſhoes, handkerchiefs for the head-dreſſes of their women, and copper utenſils. At SMYRNA, they take hides, Turkey leather or Morocco, cotton, quilted coverlids, Engliſh ſhaloons, and ſome French goods.

At GAZA, they take aſhes for their ſoap-houſes; at ALEPPO, ſilk ſtuffs: they purchaſe, on all the coaſt of SYRIA, corn and ſilk.

EGYPT ſupplies them with corn, rice, flax, linen-cloths, and aſhes. DERNA and BENGAZI, on the coaſt of AFRICA, ſend butter, known under the name of *mantègue*. TUNIS and TRIPOLI exchange their caps and their corn for ſoap and ſequins.

On Mount IDA and in SPHACHIA is found a ſpecies of *tragacantha*, which furniſhes a little gum tragacanth; but this production is not there in ſufficient abundance to be gathered and to enter into trade.

Ladanum is an article of little importance: a very ſmall quantity of it paſſes to SMYRNA and to CONSTANTINOPLE.

The

The wool is ſhort, coarſe, and like that of the iſlands of the ARCHIPELAGO. It is all conſumed in the country.

Every one is acquainted with the hone which commerce draws from CRETE and from STANCHO. The former, not ſo good nor ſo fine as the other, is found to the ſouth-weſt of RETIMO, in the territory of the Sphachiots. It is generally brought to the harbour of CANEA, whence it is ſent to MARSEILLES, and into ſome towns of ITALY.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

G. Woodfall, Printer, Paternoſter-row, London.

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